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ABSTRACT

This annual theme issue is devoted to articles on educational research pertaining to the Mexican American child. In addition, there is an article proposing strategies for recruiting Hispanics in teacher education, and a poem recalling a childhood experience. Titles and authors are: (1) "Motivation for Learning English: Differences Between Non- and Limited-English Proficient Students From Spanish Speaking Backgrounds" (Jose Salvador Hernandez); (2) "Literacy and the Adult Mexican-Origin Population: What a Biliteracy Analysis Can Tell Us" (Terrence G. Wiley); (3) "Staying in School! Effective High Schools for Hispanic Students" (J. Alex Pulido); (4) "Educacion Multicultural: Definitivas Perspectivas y Viables Opciones" (Atilano A. Valencia); (5) "The Role of Teacher Education in Recruiting Hispanics: Cross-Cultural Strategies" (Gene Gallegos); and (6) "A Singer's Song" (Olivia Castellano). (KS)

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1990 - 1991

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The Journal of the Association of Mexican American Educators
Call for Manuscripts

1992 Theme: Hispanics and Higher Education

The theme for the 1992 edition of the journal will focus on issues related to Hispanics in higher education. Possible topics for manuscripts may be special programs, campus climate concerns, recruitment and retention of students and faculty, the preparation of teachers to work with Chicano/Latino children, etc . Articles may deal with issues from educational, social, political, cultural, or psychological perspectives. Under the leadership of the Executive Board, the Association of Mexican American Educators (AMAE) publishes the journal on an annual basis. The AMAE Journal is a refereed journal and is indexed in the Chicano Studies Periodicals Index.

The selection of manuscripts will be conducted as follows:

1. Manuscripts will be judged on merit and relevance to the theme of the issue.
2. Manuscripts should not have been previously published in another journal, nor should they be under consideration by another journal at the time of submission.
3. Each manuscript will be subjected to a blind review by a review panel with expertise in the area treated by the manuscript. Those manuscripts recommended by the panel of experts will then be considered by the editorial board, which will make the final selections.

Manuscripts should be submitted as follows:

1. Three typewritten copies without name identification must be submitted, with a separate coversheet including name, address, phone, title, etc.,. If article is computer-generated, a floppy-disk copy of the article would be helpful. All illustrations, charts, and graphs should be camera-ready or on disk. Manuscripts will be returned only if requested and accompanied by a self-addressed, stamped envelope.
2. Manuscripts should be no longer than 3000 words, although longer ones may be considered. They may be submitted in the form of narratives, research articles, short stories, poems, or book reviews. Manuscripts may also be submitted in Spanish. The standard format of the America Psychological Association (APA) should be followed.

Manuscripts should be submitted by February 3, 1992

MANUSCRIPTS AND INQUIRIES SHOULD BE SENT TO:

Dr. Juan M. Flores
Department of Teacher Education
School of Education
CSU Stanislaus
801 W. Monte Vista Avenue
Turlock, California 95380

The Journal of the Association of Mexican American Educators, Inc.

1990-1991

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The Editor's Corner

The 1991 edition of the *AMAE Journal* is the fourth consecutive edition of the journal since 1987. In the last four years, we have seen some gratifying accomplishments and developments. So that we might assess our past and chart our future, we decided to conduct a survey of the State AMAE board members as well as the members of the *AMAE Journal* editorial board. Some interesting results developed that will be useful as we prepare for the future of the *AMAE Journal*.

There was substantial agreement among those surveyed that the *AMAE Journal* is serving a very important function as the arena for the study of issues related to the education of Mexican American children. It was also acknowledged that the journal plays an important role in improving the visibility of AMAE in the academic community as well as presenting the association in an increasingly more professional light. An additional accomplishment is that the journal has been published consistently every year for the last four years, an achievement considering the short life span of fledgling journals.

There were also some recommended areas for further development. There was general agreement that the journal needs to appear more than once a year in order to develop a more consistent readership. There was also general agreement that the journal needs a more professional binding. Finally, it was suggested that we should begin producing thematic editions of the journal.

We have begun working on some of these recommendations. Simultaneous with the publication of this issue, we are sending out a call for manuscripts for the 1992 edition of the journal. This will be a thematic issue devoted to Hispanics and higher education. You will also notice that this current edition is bound in a squared format that is definitely more professional in appearance (as well as more expensive). Inside the covers there are some minor format changes that we hope will improve the readability of the journal. I am certain that you will be as pleased as we are with the binding and overall format of this edition.

Hopefully, if our plans go well, you will see two editions of the journal for 1992 and two editions of the journal for subsequent years. Publishing the journal twice a year and identifying a theme for each edition will surely result in a more visible, more professional looking journal that will match the importance of its goal: to further the education of Mexican American children.

I am honored to present the articles in this edition of the journal. Dr. Terrence Wiley has conducted some excellent research related to biliteracy. His article,

titled "Literacy and the Adult Mexican-origin Population: What a Biliteracy Analysis Can Tell Us," will certainly arouse important questions for us to consider.

Dr. Jose Hernandez provides us with a thought-provoking article titled, "Motivation For Learning English: Differences Between Non-and Limited-English Proficient Students From Spanish-Speaking Backgrounds." His article will be particularly meaningful for those of us involved in second language instruction.

We are also honored to include an article titled "Staying in School! Effective High Schools for Hispanic Students" by Dr. J. Alex Pulido. Dr. Pulido takes a close, first-hand look at selected high Hispanic enrollment secondary level schools and identifies some characteristics of effective schools for Hispanic students.

Dr. Gene Gallegos shares with us an educator's point of view on the challenges that teacher education programs face in their efforts to recruit Hispanics into our profession. His article, titled "The Role of Teacher Education in Recruiting Hispanics: Cross-Cultural Strategies," will surely stimulate much discussion.

Dr. Atilano Valencia shares with us his article, titled "Educación Multicultural: Definitivas Perspectivas y Viables Opciones." This article is representative of our effort to maintain and develop our bilingual perspective. Dr. Valencia conducts a thorough review of the literature on multicultural education and presents his findings in articulate Spanish prose.

Finally, we are privileged to share with you in our Tesoros del Barrio section, a poem by Professor Olivia Castellano. Titled "A Singer's Song," it is a prime example of the special talent of Professor Castellano.

We are very pleased with how the journal has developed in the last four years, and we are gratified to see it establish itself as a legitimate voice for research on Hispanic education issues. In addition, research on the education of Mexican American children is critical and in short supply. Increasingly more members of our community are joining us in this important effort and beginning to contribute to a research base which, until recently has been very limited. Let us continue this most important work together for the betterment of Mexican American education.

Motivation For Learning English: Differences Between Non-and Limited-English Proficient Students From Spanish-Speaking Backgrounds

Jose Salvador Hernandez

Abstract

This investigation focused on examining the motivational orientations and intensity of Spanish-background students toward learning English as a second language. The subjects were 36 non-English proficient (NEP), and 36 limited-English proficient (LEP) students from homes where Spanish was spoken and who attended two middle-schools in a large metropolitan city in northern California. The students responded to three Spanish-language Likert-type scales which indicated a group preference for an instrumental motivation toward learning English and significant motivational differences were found between the NEP and the LEP students. The findings suggest that non-English proficient students and limited-English proficient students do not constitute a homogeneous group of second language learners.

Student motivation has long been considered essential for successful second language learning (Cummins, 1979; Gardner, 1979, 1985; Krashen, 1982). However, relatively little is known about the motivational factors which may influence language minority students' (LMS) success in learning English as a second language (ESL). Such knowledge would seem essential for understanding the language acquisition processes of different LMS populations in our public schools. This study focuses on the motivation of one such group, Spanish-speaking students, a group which is having and will continue to have a major impact on school systems. The first question to be considered is the nature of these students' motivational orientation for learning ESL. This group is not, however, monolithic and a second question therefore concerns possible inter-group motivational differences among Spanish-speaking students.

The seminal study by Gardner in 1960 was one of the earliest studies to show that an integrative orientation was the most important motivational factor for learning a second language. Later

on, the studies of Gardner and Lambert (1972) were the first to investigate on a major scale motivational orientations associated with second language acquisition. Their subjects were termed integratively motivated when they indicated they wanted to learn French in order to learn more about or be associated with French-speaking people. On the other hand, students were termed instrumentally motivated when they preferred pragmatic, utilitarian reasons for learning French, such as getting a good job or fulfilling course requirements. In a number of cases, with U.S. high school learners, the two motivational orientations were associated with their French language achievement.

Another factor which was found to be important was motivational intensity. That is, students may prefer a particular orientation for learning a second language but how intense that motivation is will also influence learning. Motivational intensity was defined as a combination of the student's desire and the effort made to learn the second language. Desire was characterized by the student's preference for French over other school courses, the eagerness to do assignments, the degree of attention in class, interest in the course and in the usage of French. Student effort was defined as the amount of practice with the second language outside of the school context, the amount of work done for assignments and future intentions to study and make use of French. Thus, one of the major findings from the Gardner and Lambert studies was that successful second language learners were highly motivated and possessed strong motivational intensity.

Social Context: Differences in Motivation

Subsequent findings in different parts of the world tended to indicate the importance of instrumental motivation in language learning. In India (Lukmani, 1972) and in Israel (Cooper & Fishman, 1977) high school students evidenced strong preference for instrumental motivation. For the Indian, Marathi-speaking subjects, learning English was a way of acquiring a better standard of living, better employment opportunities, and as a means of dealing with the complexities of modern life, such as coping with university classes. Similarly, the Israeli students saw "knowledge of English as contributing to important personal goals" (p.13). In one of the few studies conducted with language minority subjects in the United States, Oller, Baca, and Vigil (1977) reported that Mexican-American woman, at a job training center in New Mexico, displayed non-integrative reasons for learning English. The most proficient subjects were anti-integrative

in their motivation while the more integrative woman were the least proficient in English.

The varied findings regarding motivational preferences should warn us against over-generalization in this research area. Motivational orientations apparently vary across different social and cultural contexts, and thus instructional practices based on research findings from one context may not have direct applicability in a different socio-cultural context.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to examine the motivational orientations of a select group of adolescent students from Spanish-speaking backgrounds. To what extent would this group of students be integratively or instrumentally motivated to learn English as a second language, and how strong would their motivation be ? Would there be motivational differences based on the student's level of English language proficiency?

Two levels of English language proficiency were used: non-English proficient (NEP), and limited-English proficient (LEP). These two levels of second language proficiency were chosen because they are the linguistic categories generally used by schools to indicate student eligibility for English as a second language (ESL) and/or bilingual bicultural education programs (BBEP). However, these language proficiency categories do not tell us about student motivation. Specifically, this study sought to answer two questions:

Question # 1: What would be the preferred motivational orientations of Spanish-background students in general?

Question # 2: To what extent would the student's level of English language proficiency, NEP versus LEP, be associated with differences in motivational orientation and intensity ?

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

The subject sample consisted of 72 students from Spanish-speaking backgrounds in grades 6,7 & 8. The subjects attended two middle-schools in a low-income, large urban school district in the southern region of the San Francisco Bay area. The average age of these students was 13 years 3 months.

The student selection criteria consisted of 1) having been identified by their schools as coming from a home where Spanish was spoken, and 2) having been assessed by school personnel as being either non-English speaking or limited-English speaking.

The student's English language proficiency was individually assessed with the Language Assessment Scales II (LAS II) (Duncan & De Avila, 1977, 1978). The LAS II assesses the oral language proficiency of four linguistic sub-systems: phonemic, referential, syntactic, and pragmatic. From the combined scores of the four linguistic sub-systems 36 students were classified as non-English proficient (LAS levels 1 & 2), and 36 as limited-English proficient (LAS level 3).

Instrumentation

Students responded to a set of three interspersed Spanish language Likert-type scales (see Appendix 1). The self-report scales were modeled after portions of the Attitude and Motivation Test Battery developed by Gardner, Clement, Smythe, and Smythe (1979). Scale item content was developed to reflect the socio-cultural context of the school and written in Spanish appropriate for the student's age. The scale-items were judged for appropriateness, readability, and face validity by faculty members from the Spanish department and the school of education from a large private university. The scales were field-tested with students from similar grades, backgrounds, and language proficiency levels from other schools in the same district. Items with item-total score correlations below .32 were dropped from the final version of the scales.

The item-total score correlations generated the following ranges and means for each scale: instrumental motivation range is .46-.73, with a mean Pearson r correlation of .60; integrative motivation range is .27-.84, with a mean Pearson r correlation of .60; and motivational intensity range is 37-.65, with a mean Pearson r correlation of .54. The scales provided individual total scores for: instrumental and integrative motivation, and motivational intensity. The instrumental and integrative scales consisted of nine response statements each, with the intensity scale having ten. The students responded by marking one of five possible choices ranging from fully disagree, to fully agree. The students also provided information on their place and date of birth and the year and month they came to the United States.

Procedure

School sites were supplied with lists of eligible students and on a specified date and time the students were sent to a location to meet with the researcher. The scales were administered by a male Chicano, native Spanish-speaker who asked students who could not understand or read in Spanish to go back to their classrooms, since all of the

instructions were in Spanish. Instructions and examples of how to respond were provided and questions answered to clarify any ambiguity about the task. The administrator read each statement aloud in Spanish in order to minimize student dependency on the text alone. A consistent tempo was kept so that students would not get off task or have too much idle time between responses. The questionnaire took approximately 55 minutes to complete.

RESULTS

Instrumental motivation was the more pronounced motivational orientation for the group of students, taken as a whole. A correlated t test analysis indicated significant ($p<.001$) mean differences between the group mean for instrumental motivation ($X = 38.55$) and the group mean for the integrative orientation ($X = 33.35$). The scales with nine items had a range of possible scores of 9-45 indicating that both integrative and instrumental mean scores were relatively high. The difference in mean scores indicated that the students evidenced somewhat more pragmatic, utilitarian reasons for learning the English language. To answer the question of the extent to which non-and limited-English proficient students would differ in their motivational orientations and intensity, an equal-cell ($N = 36$) one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed, as shown in Table 1. The results identified significant differences in the motivational orientations and intensity between the NEP and the LEP students. The NEP students expressed slightly greater instrumental motivation ($X = 39.86$) than the LEP students ($X = 37.03$) and greater integrative motivation ($X = 34.58$) than the LEP counterparts ($X = 31.25$).

As with the motivational orientation scales, the ANOVA results identified significant ($p<.025$) mean differences in motivational intensity (desire & effort) between the two language proficiency groups. The non-proficient

One-Way Analysis of Variance
English Language Proficiency and Motivation

Source of Variance	d/f	F	Motivation
Language Proficiency	1/70	5.34**	Instrumental
Language Proficiency	1/70	4.44*	Integrative
Language Proficiency	1/70	6.01**	Intensity

* p<.05
** p<.025

Table 1

students had somewhat greater motivational intensity ($X = 40.72$) than did the limited proficient students ($X = 37.64$). Figure 1 depicts the two language groups on these motivational variables.

Prompted by the results of the ANOVA, a series of chi-square analyses were performed to assess the relationship between level of English language proficiency (NEP vs. LEP), students' length of residence (LOR) in the U.S., and place of birth. As shown in Figure 2, the results indicated that 73% of the NEP students were short term (ST) residents compared to 32% of the LEP students ($X^2 = 10.15$, $p<.005$). Short term residents were identified as having lived in the U.S. for less than 7-1/2 years and long term (LT) residents were either born in the U.S. or lived here from 7-1/2 to 14 years. Eighty-eight percent of the NEP students were foreign born (FB) in Mexico or Central America ($X^2 = 6.55$, $p.<.05$) while 71 % of the LEP students were born in the United States (US). Thus, the majority of NEP students could be characterized as short- term (ST)/foreign born (FB) residents, while the majority of LEP students were long-term (LT)/native born (US) residents.

The various analyses suggest three major results. One, as a group, the students in the sample reported somewhat greater instrumental than integrative reasons for learning English. Secondly, NEP and LEP students differed slightly, but significantly in their motivational orientations and intensity. Third, when the student's length of residence and place of birth were considered, the NEP and LEP students could be characterized as two

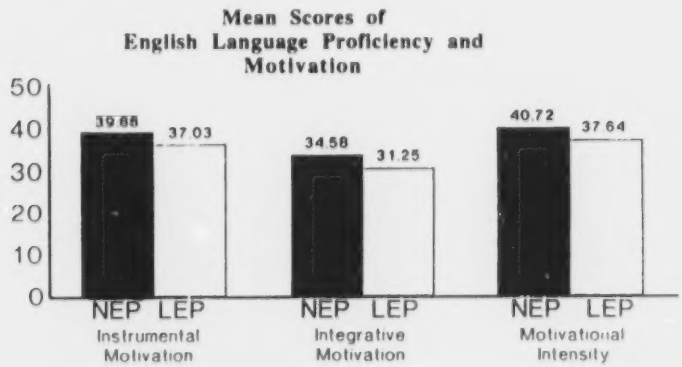


Figure 1

Chi-Square Analysis

ST	73%	32%		US	12%	71%
LT	27%	68%		FB	88%	29%
	NEP	LEP			NEP	LEP
	(p<.005)				(p<.05)	

Language Proficiency, LOR, Birthplace

Figure 2

distinct groups of students. Non-English proficient students were predominantly short-term, foreign-born residents, with greater motivation and intensity than the limited-English proficient students. Conversely, LEP students were characterized as long-term, native-born residents, with less motivation and intensity than their NEP counterparts. The results suggest that as a group these students were instrumentally motivated but that once language proficiency, length of residence and place of birth were considered, the Spanish-speaking students did not form a homogeneous group of learners.

DISCUSSION

Instrumental Preference

The finding that these students were more instrumental than integrative in their motivational orientation is supportive of previous research which has suggested that language minority students would tend to have an instrumental preference in settings where the second language was essential for economic and social advancement for members of language minority groups (Gardner & Santos, 1970; Oller, Baca, & Vigil, 1977). The respondents rated relatively high instrumental reasons, e.g., to better enable them to "understand what the teacher says in class," "get good grades in school," and "continue their schooling," as well as believing that "learning English is very important for obtaining a good job."

The students also preferred choices that point to the value of learning English in order to do well and stay in school. The students seemed aware of the need for learning English in order to get good school grades. These students may not be proficient in English but they seem to know the rules of schooling. Without "good" grades it is very difficult to continue to stay in school. The ironic nature of this situation is that even though these students realize the importance of learning English, the time required to be comparable to native English speakers would be longer than that required to finish secondary school. Cummins (1981) has suggested that it takes 5-7 years of schooling to reach age-appropriate levels of academic language skills in a second language.

The students also appear to

understand the economic necessity of learning the English language. However, much depends on the type of job and the kind and degree of English language proficiency required. If jobs are perceived to require limited second language proficiency, then higher literacy skills will seem unnecessary to these students or the school system. Native-English speaking students who are thinking of becoming working professionals may have quite a Motivation for English different perception of the literacy requirements for those careers in comparison to LMS who may see their only future as laborers or blue-collar workers.

Background Factors and Motivational Differences

The fact that on all three scales (instrumental, integrative and intensity) the NEP students indicated greater motivation than their LEP counterparts was rather surprising. A possible explanation could be that the NEP students are more motivated to learn English because of the very fact that they have been in the U.S. for less time and are unable to communicate in English. Thus, they see a greater need and have a stronger desire to learn English. The LEP students may perceive less of a need to improve their English because they have at least some oral communication skill. This limited level may be a linguistic or motivational plateau or it may be indicative of the influence of other socio-cultural factors.

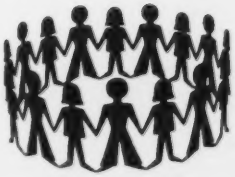
The socio-historical experiences of immigrant and native born language minority students families may provide additional insight. Some researchers believe that the parents of immigrant and native born students transmit different messages to their children because of their relationship and experiences with the dominant culture. Ogbu (1978) states:

> Education [in the U.S.] has not usually brought about the same desirable social and occupational rewards; immigrant parents... tend to have similar instrumental attitudes, partly because they want their children to be educated in order to get better jobs than their parents and partly because they have not become disillusioned by repeated failure to achieve self-improvement through education because of caste barriers (p. 236)

This perspective would suggest that immigrant parents transmit the hope, motivation, and future optimism associated with coming to a new land and providing the opportunity for their children to do better than themselves. Conversely, the subordinate socio-economic status and the repeated failures of long-term residents, may

lead these native-born children to be socialized into despair, disillusionment, and patterns of dependency associated with certain minority group contexts. For native-born students English is not a new language but simply a language they have not mastered academically, while at home Spanish continues to be used for everyday communication.

These findings should alert educators to the diversity of within-group differences. That is, within educational groupings like language minority, non-fluent speakers, or Spanish-speaking students, differences exist that must be understood by school personnel. A second implication of these findings is that activities which utilize instrumental reasons for learning English deserve at least equal time with activities that focus on integrative reasons for learning English. Perhaps instrumental reasons have more motivational value early in the process of learning a second language while integrative reasons become more important as students become more proficient and are able to interact more with native English speakers. In the long-term a greater understanding of the motivational factors of these students is essential for improving their second language acquisition.



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Appendix 1

Motivation scales: Spanish
Instrucciones

Marque una X sobre el número que mejor indica su opinión de cada frase. Si marca el número (1), entonces usted desfavorece bastante lo que dice la frase. Marcando el número (2) indica que desfavorece lo que dice la frase pero no tanto como el número (1). El número (3) indica que usted no está seguro de su opinión. El número (4) indica que usted favorece (está de acuerdo) con lo que dice la frase. Marcando el número (5) dice que usted favorece bastante lo que está en la frase. No hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas. Solamente queremos saber lo que piensa usted de cada frase. EJEMPLO:

La comida de este país es muy diferente a la de Méjico.
(Que piensa usted?)

Desfavorece Bastante	Desfavorece	Neutral	Favorece	Favorece Bastante
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

1. Aprender a hablar inglés es muy importante para tener un trabajo bueno.
   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

2. Entre más conozco a los norte americanos, más quiero aprender el inglés.
   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

3. En la escuela, yo quiero aprender a hablar inglés en corto tiempo.
   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

4. Cuando oigo palabras nuevas en inglés, hago la lucha de aprenderlas.
   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

5. Quiero hablar inglés porque me ayuda mucho a sacar calificaciones buenas en mis clases.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

6. Quiero aprender inglés para poder comprender y apreciar la gente de este país.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

7. Quiero aprender inglés más que cualquier otra cosa.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

8. Cuando tengo la oportunidad de conversar con norteamericanos, lo hago.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

9. El aprender inglés me ayuda a saber lo que me dicen las maestras en clase.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

10. Quiero aprender inglés para conocer más a los norte americanos.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

11. Principalmente, voy a la escuela para aprender inglés.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

12. Cuando no entiendo algo en inglés, pido que lo repitan.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

13. Quiero aprender inglés para saber lo que me dicen los estudiantes que hablan inglés.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

14. Quiero aprender inglés para ser más como los norte americanos.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

15. De mis estudios, la cosa más difícil es aprender el inglés.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

16. Cuando miro la televisión, aprendo palabras en inglés.
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

17. Quiero aprender inglés para defenderme de los estudiantes que me insultan en inglés.

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

18. Quiero aprender inglés para tener amigos y amigas que hablan inglés.

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

19. Mis padres quieren que yo aprenda inglés en corto tiempo.

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

20. Dedico más esfuerzos a aprender inglés en la communidad que en la escuela.

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

21. Quiero aprender inglés para ayudar a mi familia como intérprete.

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

22. Quiero aprender inglés para saber más de la vida de los norte americanos.

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

27. Quiero aprender el inglés muy bien para tener ventaja en la escuela.

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

28. Quiero aprender inglés para saber mejor los modos de este país.

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

Motivational Sub-Scales and Item Numbers

Sub-Scales:	Item Numbers:
Instrumental Motivation	1,5,9,13,17,21,23,25,27
Integrative Motivation	2,6,10,14,18,22,24,26,28
Motivational Intensity	
Desire	3,7,11,15,19
Effort	4,8,12,16,20

Literacy and the Adult Mexican-origin Population: What a Biliteracy Analysis Can Tell Us

Terrence G. Wiley

Abstract

This study used a biliteracy analysis of the National Chicano Survey (NCS) to profile literacy and educational characteristics of the Mexican-origin population. By differentiating "English" literacy from literacy generally, it is argued that a more realistic picture is presented of the so-called literacy crisis since most discussions of literacy at the national level confuse literacy with English literacy. Findings indicate that among groups such as Chicanos, biliteracy and Spanish literacy are resources which demonstrate associations with educational achievement, family income, employment, and increased political participation. The study also found that non-literacy is associated with Mexican nativity and with age (those over 45 years of age are far less likely to be literate). Women were found to have higher levels of English literacy, biliteracy, and education; men were found to have higher levels of Spanish literacy. As expected, language background characteristics and language of literacy demonstrated strong associations. The study concluded that literacy resources in Spanish need to be recognized from the perspectives of language and educational policies.

In the United States, a focus on literacy in languages other than English has generally been missing in national literacy surveys. This omission is significant because it reinforces the notion that English literacy is the only literacy which is worthy of attention. Moreover, by ignoring analyses of literacy in other languages, this singular focus on English literacy tends to inflate the magnitude of the so-called literacy crisis.[1] Since it is likely many of those who are held to be "illiterate" (in English) are literate in other languages, failure to recognize non-English literacy abilities increases the alleged pool of illiterates and stigmatizes those literate in other languages as being under-educated, non-productive, or unable to function. Finally, by failing to distinguish English illiteracy from illiteracy generally, it is difficult determine which educational policies and programs are appropriate since the

educational needs of non-literates differ greatly from the needs those who are acquiring second language literacy.

While it is beyond dispute that English holds the dominant position within the United States, it does not necessarily follow that English literacy can or should fulfill all of the needs of predominantly bilingual language minority groups, nor does it follow that there are no positive benefits to the majority in developing biliteracy among themselves (Simmon, 1988). In this regard Levine has noted:

> Few individuals, however, polyglot or highly educated have not needed to read or write in an unfamiliar language. To imply that everyone is illiterate in relation to some kinds of information is not an empty rhetorical device to destigmatize and salve the feelings of those with severe incapacities. In fact, a diversity of literacies has long been a familiar aspect of multilingual societies. [1982:264]

Since it is often argued (Vargas, 1986) that economic achievement and political participation are strongly related to literacy generally, the relationship between such factors and literacy—in not only English, but also in other languages such as Spanish—needs to be explored to determine which language of literacy fulfills which functions.

Moreover, there is also a need to profile more adequately the characteristics of subgroups who may be targeted for literacy programs since educational theorists have long argued that the design of educational programs must begin with an understanding of the characteristics of the students for whom programs are intended. Hunter and Harman (1985) have estimated that 68% of the nation's adult basic education students are studying English as a second language. However, first language literacy assessment has received little attention in adult language minority instruction, even though such assessment has become an essential component in bilingual education for children (Macías, 1988). Thus, from an educational perspective, there is a need to profile subgroups such as Chicanos and to recognize differences within the Chicano population. Relevant demographic data can help in the planning process at the national and the local levels and will help to inform educational policy makers and curriculum planners.

Chicano/Latino Literacy in National Surveys

Most national surveys of literacy in the United States fail to make distinctions among major ethnic groups. Thus, the attempt to determine the extent of Chicano literacy (and that of other groups) often requires the need

to extrapolate from data related to "Hispanics." Since Chicanos are a subgroup among the Latino population, it is understandable that data related to Chicanos is embedded in this manner; Chicanos are the largest language minority group and account for about 61% of the Latino population of the United States (Banks, 1984). Yet, while inferences about Chicanos from Latino data have some merit, caution must be used in interpreting the data since each language minority subgroup can be expected to have a unique sociohistorical and sociolinguistic experience (Macías, 1988).

Among the growing number of national data sets which do allow for extrapolation of Chicano literacy estimates (or rough inferences from "Hispanic" data) are the 1985 Young Adult Literacy Survey, the 1982 English Language Proficiency Survey (ELPS), the 1980 Census, the 1979 National Chicano Survey (NCS), the 1976 Survey of Income and Education (SIE), the Adult Performance Level (APL) (which began in 1971 and was first reported on in 1975), and various Current Population Survey (CPS) reports on educational attainment.

However, comparison of results from the various surveys is problematic because the means of measuring literacy and the populations sampled are not parallel. Generally, there are three basic types of literacy measures: (1) direct measures, such as competency tests, (2) surrogate measures, such as years of schooling, and (3) self-reported measures. While each have merits and limitations, direct measures are preferable (but not always feasible) given their attempts at objectivity.[2] Despite problems inherent in the reliability of self-reported measures, they are generally preferable to surrogate measures, since substitute measures provide no guarantee of competency. Regardless of the measure used, literacy is probably best conceived as a continuum rather than as a dichotomy. Nevertheless, thresholds are useful in making comparisons or determining needs, especially since generalization is needed to guide national educational policies.

Using direct measures, the English Language Proficiency Survey (ELPS), placed the non-literate adult population (over the age of twenty) at between 17 and 21 million (United States Department of Education, 1986). While ELPS estimated 13% of the total adult population to be illiterate, it concluded that the rate for adult Latinos was much higher at 22%. These findings are typical of studies which have indicated that minorities, particularly Latinos and Blacks, are more likely to have lower level literacy skills than are typical among the Euro-

American majority (Kirsch & Jungeblut, 1986).

Orum (1982) indicates, based upon the 1979 CPS report, that Chicanos had the highest rate of functional (English) illiteracy among all Latinos; for Chicanos the rate was 23% compared to 15% for Puerto Ricans, 9.3% for Cubans, and about 6% for all other Latinos. She also notes that, using competency-based APL criteria, 56% of all Latinos in the United States were found to be functionally illiterate compared to 47% for Blacks, and 16% for Anglos.

However, Venezky, Kaestle, and Sum (1987) found, based upon the results of the Young Adult Literacy Survey, that Latinos between the ages of 18 and 25 generally achieved higher scores than Blacks, but lower scores than Anglos, on four direct measures of literacy: NAEP reading, Prose reading, Document reading, and Quantitative reading.

Ortiz (1987) has undertaken a secondary analysis of the Young Adult Literacy Survey, focusing on Latinos specifically. Her findings indicate that Chicanos tended to achieve higher rates of English literacy than Puerto Ricans on the four measures.

Macías (1988) has undertaken a comparative secondary analysis of major Latino subgroups using the 1980 Census, the 1976 Survey of Income and Education (SIE), and the 1979 National Chicano Survey (NCS). Using six years (or more) of schooling as a surrogate measure of literacy, Macías found an English illiteracy rate of 19% for the Mexican-origin population based upon the 1980 Census and a rate of 21% based upon the SIE. These rates were higher than those for other Latino groups (Puerto Ricans, Central and South Americans, and Cubans).

The discrepancy between Chicanos and other Latinos indicates the need for more subgroup analyses among those typically labeled "Hispanic" in national surveys. Moreover, while the analysis of the Census, SIE, APL, NAEP, and Young Adult Literacy surveys are useful in providing some data relative to Latino/Chicano English literacy, one weakness all these data sets share is their inability to probe literacy in Spanish. Consequently, biliteracy data are needed since such data should should prove helpful to determine the direction and development of literacy services at the national level and to open the way for the recognition and utilization of Spanish language literacy.

The National Chicano Survey

The National Chicano Survey (NCS) 1979 was designed as a national sample (or, more accurately, as a sample representative of 90% of the

national Chicano population). Like other national surveys, the NCS relied upon self-reported data which allowed for a biliteracy analysis, across English and Spanish, and a substitute years-of-schooling, literacy measure.

The purpose of the NCS was "to compile a statistically representative and comprehensive body of empirical information about the social, economic and psychological status of Chicanos" (Arce, n.d.: ii). A household survey was used to identify individuals of Mexican descent living in Arizona, California, Colorado, Texas and Chicago, Illinois. Although the other states were excluded, the geographical scope of the study exceeded that of any previous study on Chicanos; the survey covered a geographical area where about 90% of the Mexican-origin population in the United States live. In defining its sample population, the NCS treated "person of Mexican origin/ descent" and "Chicano" as operationally synonymous. These terms were treated as encompassing the native-born, immigrants, and undocumented persons (Santos, 1985).

Interviews were obtained from 991 respondents. The response rate was 73%. Forty-four percent of the respondents were residents of California; about 35% were from Texas; 16% were from the Southwest, and just over 5% were from the Chicago area. Face-to-face interviews were conducted in English, Spanish, or both languages (Santos, 1985:20).

Approximately 60% of the respondents were women, which reflected both a disproportionate representation in the population and a slightly higher refusal rate for men. Sixty-two percent of the respondents were born in the United States compared to 38% who were born in Mexico. The mean age of the respondents was 40.1 years for women and 39.6 years for men (Santos, 1985:20-21). Fifty-two percent of the interviews were conducted in Spanish, and 48% were conducted in English (Arce, n.d.:ii).

Survey Instrument

The survey questionnaire contained closed and open-ended questions in a side-by-side Spanish and English format to facilitate interviewing in either language. The NCS Codebook (Arce, n.d.) lists over 1,600 variables (excluding NCS recodes). Variables relevant to this study pertained to reading and writing abilities (in English and Spanish), grade-level achievement, language background and use, age, nativity, sex, parental education, family income, and political participation.

Methods Used in the Secondary Analysis

Secondary analyses of the NCS data involved selection and recoding of literacy variables (one for English and one for Spanish). The recoded literacy variables were based upon the self-assessed ability to read books and newspapers and the ability to write letters. Responses of "little" or "no" ability were operationalized as non-functionally literate; those of "some" to "well" were operationalized as functionally literate. To facilitate analyses, a biliteracy measure was constructed consisting of four categories: (1) English-dominant literacy (which will be referred to as "English literacy"), (2) biliteracy, (3) Spanish-dominant literacy (which will be referred to as "Spanish literacy") and (4) non-functional literacy (which includes both illliteracy and minimal literacy).[3]

In addition to the biliteracy scale, a grade-level achievement surrogate measure of literacy was also constructed which operationally defined literacy as six years of schooling or more. This definition was used since it allowed for data comparisons with the U.S. Census and other national surveys such as the Survey of Income and Education (SIE). Schooling levels were also determined for grades 7 through 11 and for grades 12 and above. These two additional thresholds allowed for ascertaining the percentages of those who fail to complete grade 12 (which used to operationalize the definition of "educationally disadvantaged)." This definition has been used by the the U.S. Department of Education and by the National Advisory Council on Adult Education (NACAE) (Hunter & Harman, 1985).

Since language background characteristics have been identified as having a high correlation with English literacy skills (Ortiz, 1987), the relationship between literacy abilities and oral language factors were explored using the following variables: language of the interview, bilingual abilities, childhood home language and language of one's childhood neighborhood. Bilingual abilities were computed based upon self-reported oral English and Spanish abilities. For economy and power of description, it was desirable to construct three categories: (1) English language dominant, (2) Spanish language dominant, and (3) fully bilingual.

Statistical Procedures

The secondary analyses involved statistical manipulation of the data primarily by means of crosstabulations using Chi-square. The biliteracy variable was crosstabulated with other respondent characteristics such as

nativity, age, sex, age upon immigration, educational achievement, parental educational achievement, income, employment, and political participation, and language background characteristics.

Data are reported in the form of percentages and frequency counts from crosstabulations. Kendall's Tau was used to determine the concordance among literacy variables. Statistical significance was set at < .05 for all measures.

Findings: General Literacy and Schooling Characteristics

As other surveys have found, illiteracy is high among the Mexican-origin population, but it is not nearly as high as would be indicated by an English only focus. Figure 1a indicates that half (52%; $N = 499$) of the sample was English literate compared to 42% ($N = 408$) who were Spanish literate. Twenty-two percent ($N = 250$) of the sample may be considered functionally biliterate in English and Spanish.

FIGURE 1a

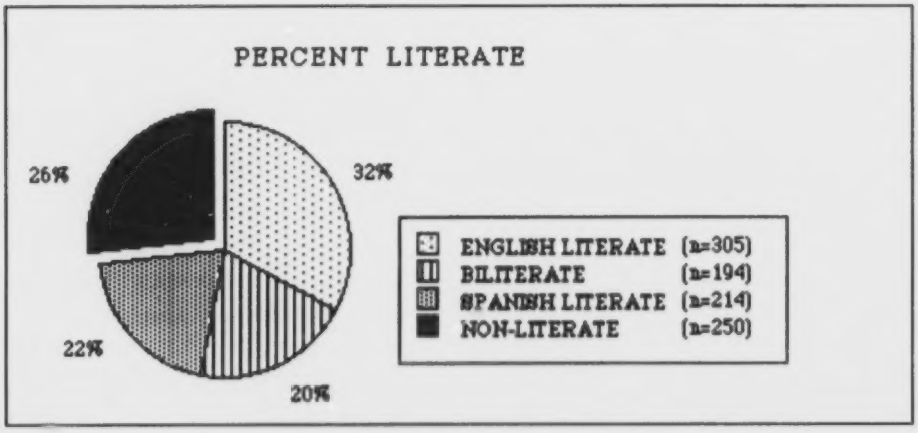
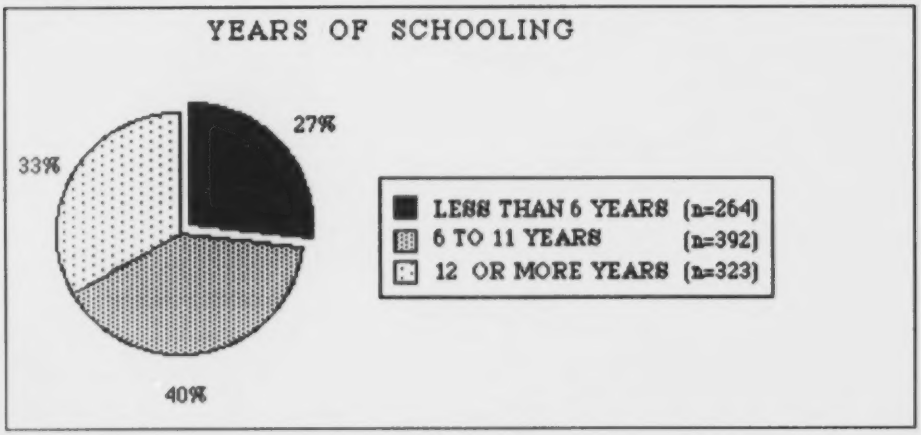


FIGURE 1b



Findings for grade-level achievement (as a surrogate measure of literacy) were similar to those for self-reported literacy. Twenty-seven percent (N = 264) of the sample were non-functionally literate. Using a threshold of less than grade twelve, two thirds (N = 656) of the sample were educationally disadvantaged.

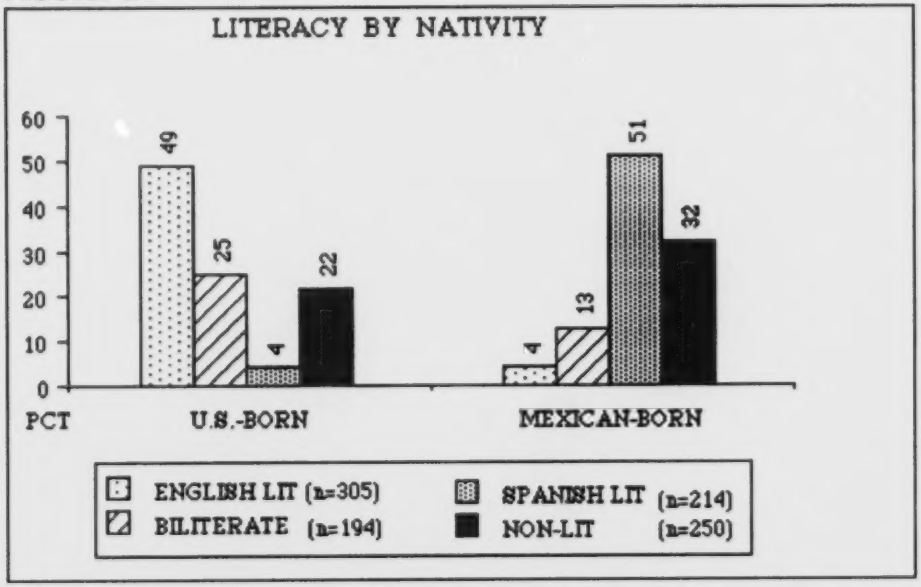
As expected, the relationship between literacy and grade-level achievement was relatively strong (see Figure 1b). There was a general tendency for English literacy and biliteracy to be associated with higher grade-level achievement, but this appeared to be less the case for those literate in Spanish only. Fifty-seven percent (N = 121) of those literate in Spanish only achieved more than six years of schooling compared to 98% (N = 297) for those literate in English only and 93% (N = 180) for biliterates. Differences between groups were significant: $X^2(6, N = 957) = 421.86$, $p < .05$. [4]

Nativity and Literacy

Figure 2 indicates—as expected—that English and Spanish literacy demonstrated a strong association with nativity. Forty-nine percent (N = 290) of those born in the United States indicated functional English literacy abilities, and 51% (N = 188) of those born in Mexico indicated functional Spanish literacy abilities. However, functional biliteracy was more strongly associated with U.S. nativity than with

Mexican nativity. Twenty-five (N = 148) percent of those born in the U.S. were biliterate compared to less than 13% (N = 46) of those born in Mexico. Nearly one-third (32%; N = 46) of those born in Mexico were non-functionally literate compared to 22% (N = 131) for those born in the United States. Differences between groups were significant: $X^2(3, N = 963) = 393.13$, $p < .05$.

FIGURE 2



Lower levels of schooling were likewise more strongly associated with Mexican nativity with nearly half (45% N = 167) of the Mexican-born having failed to complete grade six. Only 16% (N = 97) of the U.S.-born failed to complete grade six. Eighty-eight percent of the Mexican-born (N= 329) failed to complete grade twelve compared to 54% for the U.S.-born (N= 327). Differences between groups were significant: $X^2(2, N = 979) = 152.41$, $p < .05$.

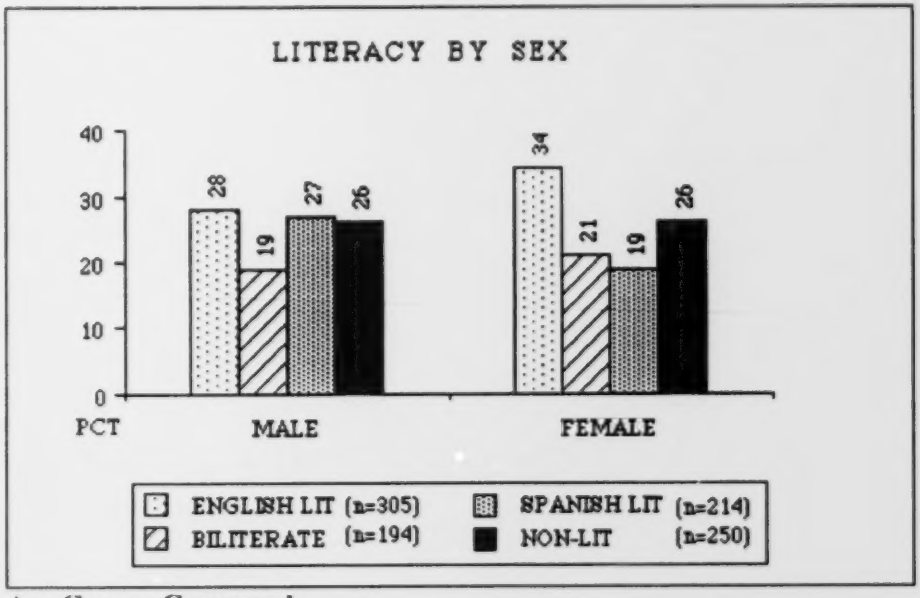
Males and Females Compared

Figure 3 indicates that non-functional literacy is roughly proportionate between males (26%; N = 98) and females (26%; N = 152). A

higher percentage of females (34% [N = 196] to 28% [N = 109]) were English literate; however, higher percentage of men were Spanish literate (27% [N = 103] to 19% [N = 111]). Biliteracy profiles are also similar for men and women (19% [N = 74] and 21% [N = 120] respectively). Differences between groups were significant: $X^2(3, N = 963) = 8.55$, $p < .05$.

Women were also more likely to complete high school than men with 43% (N = 187) finishing twelve years compared to only 35% (N = 136). Differences between groups were significant: $X^2(2, N = 979) = 4.44$, $p<.05$.

FIGURE 3

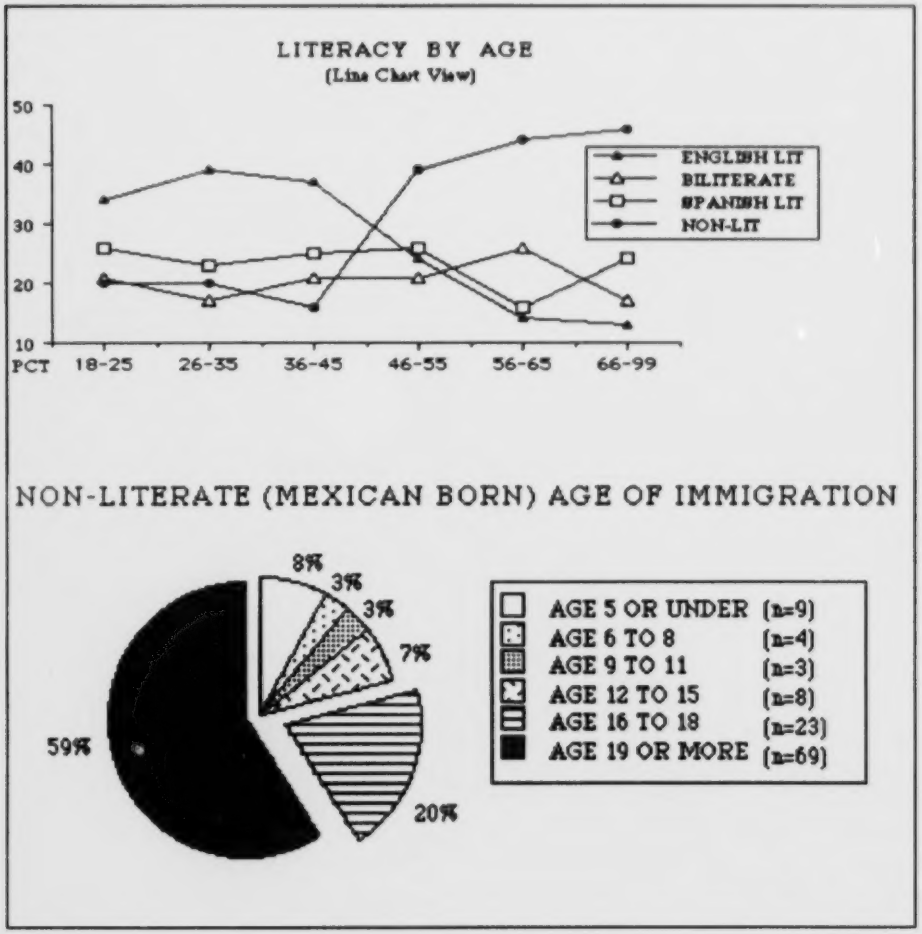


Age Groups Compared

Figure 4 indicates two interesting tendencies: English literacy declines sharply after age 45 and non-literacy increases. The highest level of English only literacy (of 39%; N = 124) was for the 26 to 35 age group. For those between the ages of 18 and 45, there was only slight variation. However,

beginning with the 46 to 55 age group, the percentage of English literacy drops to 24% (N = 34) and continues to drop to a low of 13% (N = 9) for the most senior group. The range for non-functional literacy was from 16% (N = 33) for those 36 to 45, compared to nearly 46% (N = 32) for those 66 or more years of age. There was no consistent pattern of variation for biliteracy or Spanish literacy based upon age groups. Differences between groups were significant: $X^2(15, N = 956) = 78.61$, $p<.05$.

FIGURE 4



Age of Immigration

The data strongly suggest—as expected—that age is more of a factor when it is associated with nativity and immigration. For example, whereas 63% (N = 227) of the Mexican-born immigrated at age nineteen or older (after the age most students have left high school), only 6% (N = 23) immigrated at the age five or younger—such individuals would have attended grade school only in this country. Among those who immigrated after the age of eighteen, 62% (N = 140) were Spanish literate, 7% (N = 15) were biliterate, 1% (N = 3) were English literate, and 30% were non-functionally literate. Differences between groups were significant: $X2(15, N = 362) = 108.11$, $p < .05$; the smaller number of cases was expected, given the control for nativity.

Parents' Level of Education

The relationship between parental levels of education and literacy is generally evident despite the fact that the educational attainment of the respondents' parents is generally low. Sixty-one percent (N = 465) of the respondents' fathers and 58% (N = 469) of their mothers completed less than six years. Only 9% of the respondents' fathers (N = 70) and mothers (N = 69) had completed more than twelve years of schooling. These findings are particularly disturbing given the strong association between parent and child literacy (Impink-Hernández, 1985).

FIGURE 5

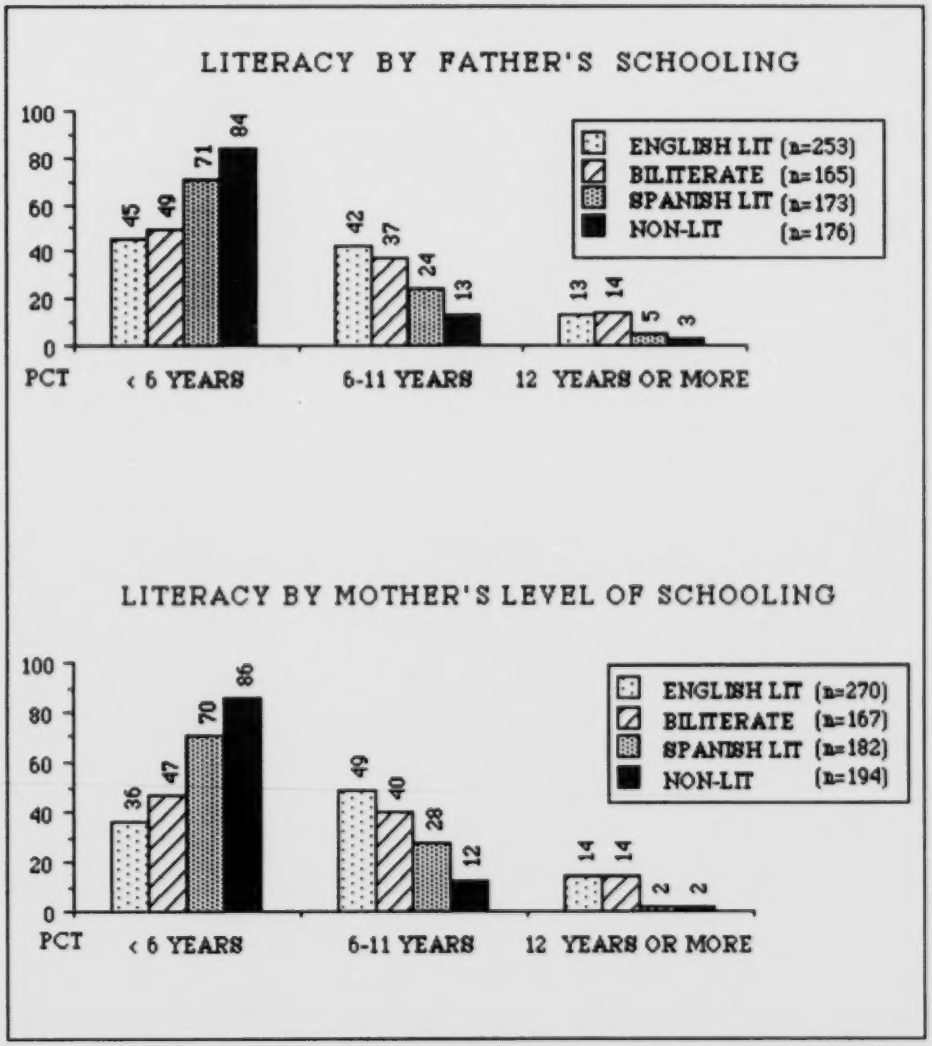
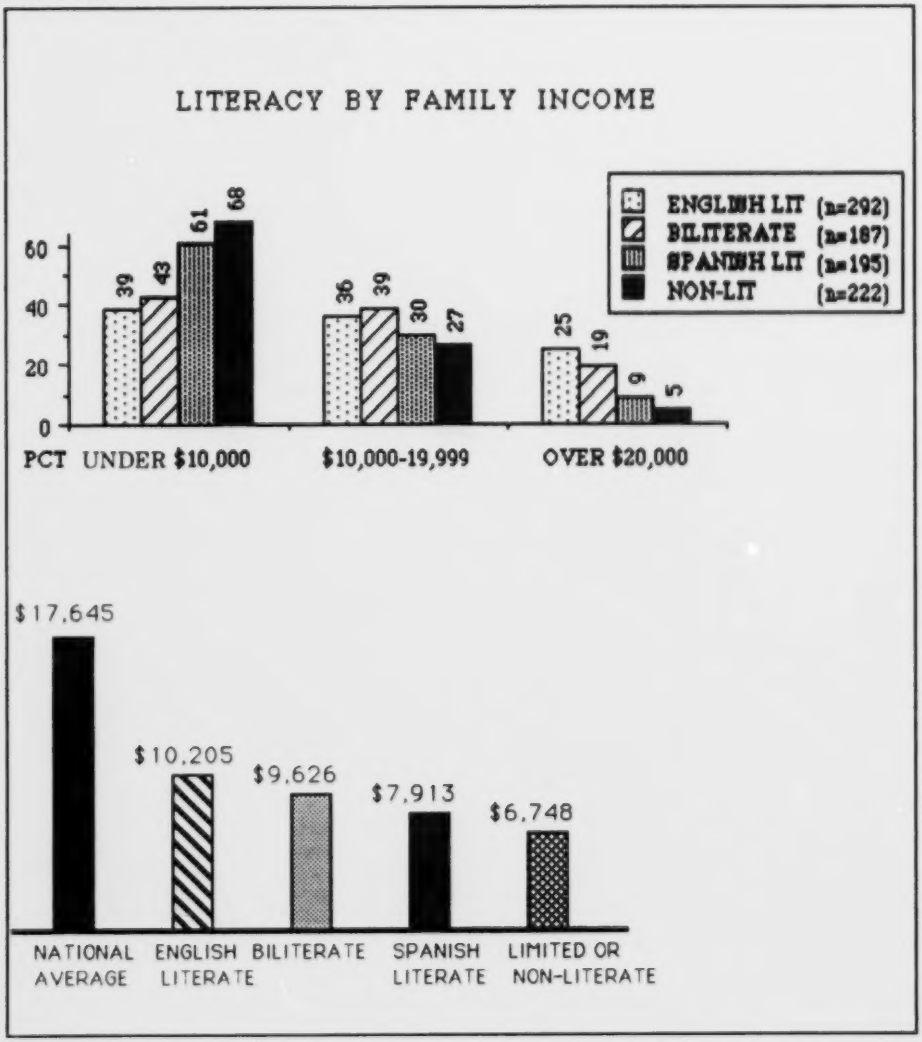


Figure 5 indicates that while 45% (N = 113) of the English literacy group indicated that their fathers had completed less than six years of schooling, 71% (N = 123) of the Spanish literacy group and over 84% (N = 148) of those non-functionally literate indicated the same. The differences were even more varied

when comparisons are made based upon the respondent's mother's level of education. Only 36% (N = 98) of the English literacy group's mothers had failed to complete six years of schooling compared to nearly 86% (N = 166) for the non-functionally literate. Differences between groups were significant: $X^2(6, N = 813) = 138.37$, $p < .05$; the number of missing cases was higher than expected.

FIGURE 6



Family Income

The relationship between literacy and income is profiled in Figure 6, which indicates that only 15% of the sample had family incomes of more than $20,000 per year. Twenty-five (N = 74) percent of the English literacy group reported family incomes of more than $20,000 per year compared to 19% (N = 35) for biliterates, 9% for Spanish literates and only 5% (N = 11) for the non-functionally literate group. Among the English literate group, 39% (N =113) reported family incomes below $10,000; 43% ($N$ = 80) of the biliterates, 61% (N = 119) of the Spanish literate group, and 68% (N = 151) of the non-functionally literate were also below $10,000 in family income. Differences between groups were significant: $X^2(6, N = 896) = 74.23$, $p < .05$; the amount of missing data is greater than expected.

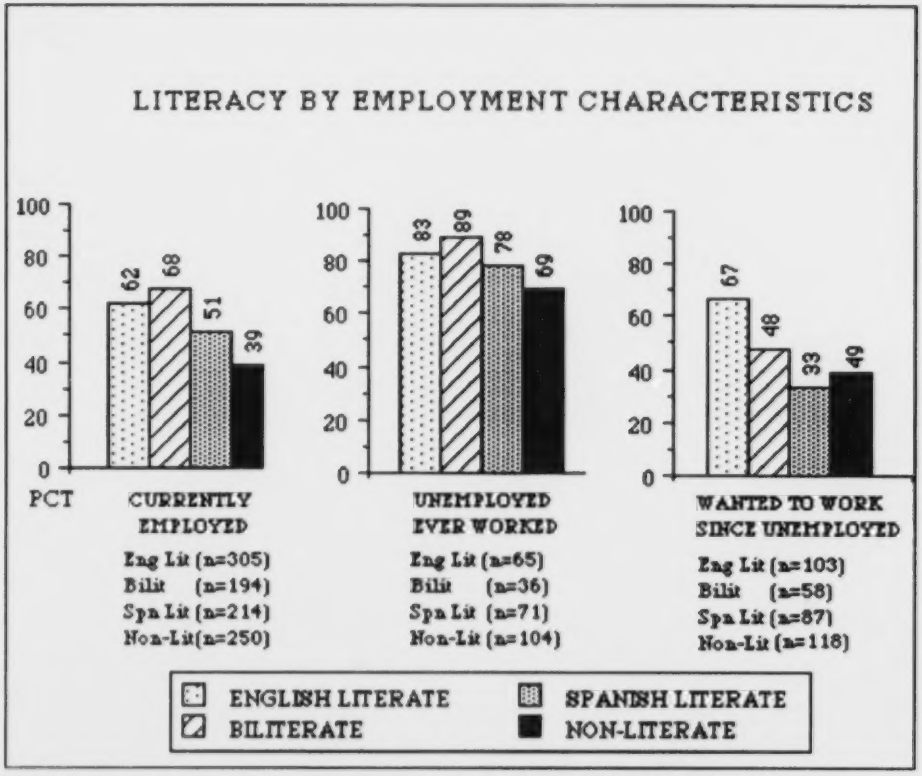
Mean incomes are also summarized in Figure 6. English literates reported the highest mean family income at $10,205 ($N$ = 224), followed by biliterates at $9,626 ($N$ = 187), then by Spanish literates at $7,913 ($N$ = 195), and by those non-functionally literate at $6,748 ($N$ = 222). All Chicano literacy groups were substantially below the national family income mean of $17,640 for the year 1978 (Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1980).

Employment

In terms of employment, biliterates appeared to have an edge over the English literacy and Spanish literacy groups (Figure 7). Sixty-eight percent (N = 132) of the biliterates were employed compared to 62% (N = 189) for the English literacy group and to 51% (N = 110) for the Spanish literacy group. Literacy in any language made a significant difference; only 39% (N = 97) of the non-functionally literate group reported that they were currently employed. Differences between groups were significant: $X^2(3, N = 963) = 46.50$, $p < .05$.

For those not employed, in response to the question of whether they had ever worked for pay, 89% (N = 32) of the biliterates, and 83% (N = 54) of the English literacy group indicated that they had, compared to 78% (N = 55) for those of the Spanish literacy group and to only 69% (N = 72) for the non-functionally literate group. Differences between groups significant: $X^2(3, N = 276) = 7.82$, $p < .05$; the smaller number of cases was expected.

FIGURE 7



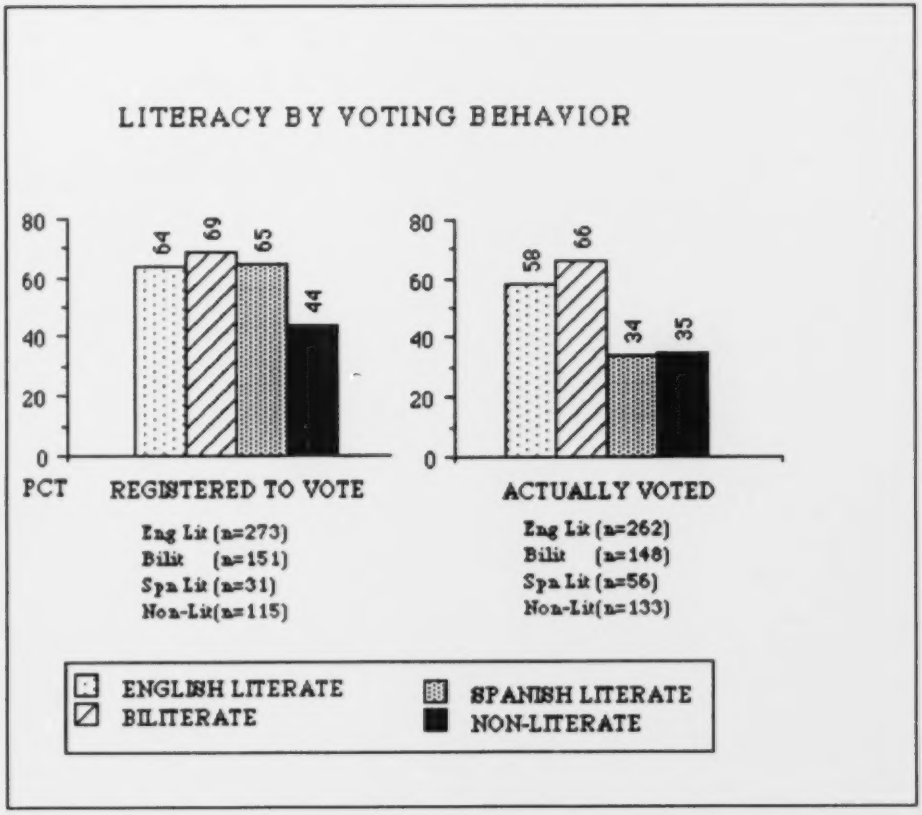
Literacy also appears to be associated with the motivation to work for those unemployed. Sixty-seven percent (N = 69) of the unemployed English literates expressed a desire to work compared to 48% (N = 28) for the biliterates, to 33% (N = 29) for the Spanish literates, and to 49% (N = 58) for the non-functionall literate. Differences between groups were significant: $X^2(3, N = 366) = 21.65$, $p < .05$; the smaller number of cases was expected.

Political Participation

The relationship between literacy and political participation was explored based upon whether Chicanos eligible to vote were in fact registered at the time of the survey, and whether (if registered) they did in fact vote in the 1976 Presidential election. Across the sample as a whole, among those eligible to vote, 62% were registered (Figure 8). Nearly 70% (N = 105) of the biliterates were registered compared to

65% (N = 20) for the Spanish literacy group, and to 64% (N = 175) for the English literacy group. Only 44% (N = 51) of the non-functionally literate group were registered to vote. Differences between groups were significant: $X^2(3, N = 570) = 19.32$, $p < .05$; the smaller number of cases was expected.

FIGURE 8



In terms of actually voting in the previous presidential election, among those registered a higher proportion of biliterates voted—66% (N = 97), compared to 58% (N = 153) for the English literacy group. Only 34% (N = 19) of the Spanish literacy group and 35% (N = 46) of the non-functionally literate voted (Figure 8). Differences between groups were significant: $X^2(3, N = 599) = 38.61$, $p < .05$; the smaller number of cases was expected.

Literacy by Nativity and Language Dominance

As expected, there was a strong relationship between language abilities and language of literacy. Controlling for nativity, the data indicated that nearly half (49%, N = 289) of those born in the United States report English literacy abilities compared to only 4% (N = 4) for those born in Mexico. Eighty-four percent of the U.S-born English language dominant group indicated English literacy abilities compared to 46% (N = 4) for bilinguals and only 15% (N = 15) for those dominant in the Spanish language. Sixty percent of the U.S.-born Spanish dominant group were non-functionally literate compared to only 15% (n = 56) for bilinguals and only 11% (N = 14) for the English dominant group.6

Among the Mexican-born group, 17% (N = 14) of the bilinguals were literate in English compared to only 7% (N = 1) for those dominant in the Spanish language. Predictably, bilinguals also had the edge in biliteracy 46% (N = 39) to 3% (N = 7). However, the Spanish language dominant (63%, N = 177) were more likely to have Spanish literacy abilities than bilinguals (13%, N = 11). A slightly higher percentage among the Spanish language dominant group (34%, N = 95) were non-functionally literate than among the bilingual group (25%, N = 21).

Thus, among the U.S.-born, the Spanish language dominant group had the lowest levels of literacy overall. Of those born in Mexico, bilinguals were more likely to be English literate or biliterate and less likely to be Spanish literate.

Childhood Language Environment

The relationship between literacy and childhood home and neighborhood language is illustrated by Figures 9a and 9b. Among the English dominant literate group, over half (52%; N = 188) came from homes where only or mostly Spanish was spoken when they were children. Only 23% (N = 69) came from homes where only or mostly English was spoken; the remainder came from bilingual homes. A similar pattern holds true between English literacy and language of the

neighborhood with half (N = 152) of the English literacy group having lived in neighborhoods that were predominantly Spanish-speaking. Only one-third (N = 103) came from only or mostly English speaking neighborhoods.

Among biliterates, 84% (N = 163) came from predominantly Spanish-speaking homes. Seventy-five percent (N = 145) came from only or mostly Spanish-speaking neighborhoods.

All of the Spanish literacy group came from homes in which only or mostly Spanish was spoken while 97% (N = 208) came from neighborhoods in which Spanish was the predominant language.

FIGURE 9a

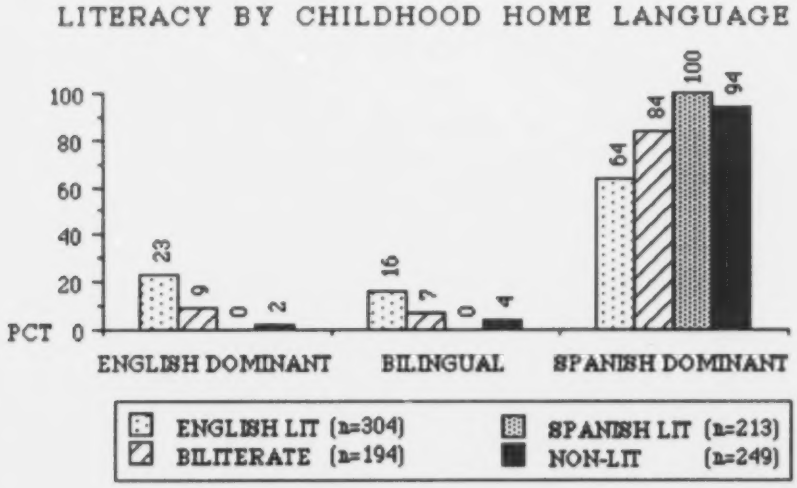
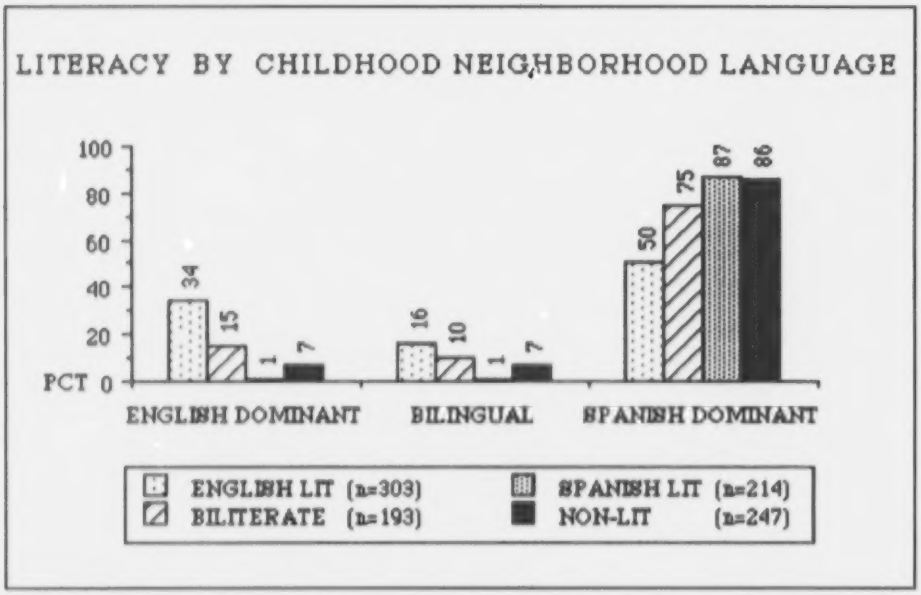


FIGURE 9b.



Although the majority of those sampled reported coming from environments in which only or mostly Spanish was spoken, there was less of a tendency for the English literacy group to come from Spanish language backgrounds than for biliterates or for the Spanish literacy group. Moreover, there was a greater tendency for the non-functionally literate to come from predominantly Spanish-speaking childhood language environments.

CONCLUSION

As expected non-English literacy and non-literacy generally were high among Chicanos. However, when non-English literacy was distinguished from non-functional literacy, the rates were substantially different (48% versus 22%). It would appear that the tendency to equate literacy with English literacy ignores the positive force of biliteracy and Spanish literacy (for such groups as Chicanos) and under-represents the literacy resources of the Chicano population. Moreover, the perception of higher rates of "illiteracy" (in the United States) does appear to be accentuated by a general failure to acknowledge the Spanish literacy resources of groups like Chicanos.

While biliterates and English literates had advantages in terms of economic success and political

participation over the Spanish literate, those literate in only Spanish generally demonstrated advantages over those not functionally literate in either language. Whereas English literacy was generally associated more strongly with family income, biliteracy was more strongly associated with employment and political participation. Thus, in certain contexts, both biliteracy and Spanish literacy appear to be valuable.

Learning English and becoming literate in English are important to the majority of Chicanos, but so too is maintaining Spanish literacy (especially among those over 45 years of age). Thus, there is a need for language policies and educational policies which recognize these resources. In this regard, Kloss (1977, 1971) has noted that there are several possible postures which governments and policy makers can assume toward non-majority languages (and literacies): (1) promotion, (2) accommodation, (3) tolerance, or (4) suppression. While it is unlikely that the majority will attempt to promote Spanish literacy on an equal basis with English literacy, acknowledging languages other than English (e.g., Spanish), and accommodating those who rely on them can allow for a broader of utilization of literacy resources.

Consequently, there is a need to recognize the resources which exist within the workplace and in society at large, and to acknowledge the value of literacy (beyond English literacy) in promoting political participation. Finally, to the extent that language minorities should have the right to choose their own literacy and language practices (cf.; Macías, 1979), biliteracy and bilingualism should be recognized as legitimate means for promoting literacy and language resources of the groups themselves, and of the nation as a whole.

End Notes

1 See Kozol (1985) for a discussion of the "literacy crisis."

2 Hunter and Harman (1985) and Erickson (1984) note that caution must be used in placing too much credence in direct measures since they are not always ecologically valid.

3 See Wiley (1988) for a more detailed discussion of the recoding procedures.

4 Using Kendall's Tau b, there was a concordance of $t = .62417$ ($N = 957$), $p < .05$ between schooling and English literacy. Differences between groups for Spanish literacy were not significant, $t = 0.01371$ ($N = 958$), $p > .05$. Spanish literacy appears to have been confounded by nativity (and possibly by age and sex as well).

5 It should be noted that numbers are highly disproportionate (ranging from a low of 70 for the 66 and older group to a high of 315 for the 26 to 35 year old group).

6 Differences between groups using Chi-square (controlling for born in the U.S.): $X^2(6, N = 813) = 138.37$, $p < .05$ (the number of missing cases is higher than

expected); results (controlling for born in Mexico) were significant; $X^2(6, N = 594) = 254.34186$, $p < .05$. Smaller numbers were expected given the control for nativity.

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Staying in School!
Effective High Schools for Hispanic Students

J. Alex Pulido

Abstract

One of the nation's most serious problems is the high dropout rate among Hispanic students in public school systems throughout the country. The consequences to youth who drop out and to the nation's economic and social well-being is obvious. The investigator has collected data and looked at school systems throughout California with low dropout rates among Hispanic students. Programs and factors which have a positive influence on retention and keep students from dropping out have been identified. Other pertinent data which correlate highly with low dropout rates including academic achievement, staffing patterns, discipline programs, leadership and other factors have also been investigated.

Rapidly changing demographics in the United States are creating a crisis for educational systems and professional educators. Among the new faces which arrive at the doors of our educational institutions are the ever increasing numbers of minority children. The new wave of immigrants, adding to an already large minority population, are creating ever greater challenges for educators. According to the U.S. Census Bureau figures (1989), the Hispanic population has grown about five times as fast as the non-Hispanic population since 1980. In several school systems throughout the United States, Hispanic students are the majority population.

According to the Association of California School Administrators (1988) the minority student population in 1980 in California's public schools has been changing rapidly for 20 years. The Association of California School Administrators also states that the greatest increases in minority student populations are among Asians and Hispanics. Asian students will increase from 7% of the student population in 1980 to about 14% by the year 2000. Hispanic students will make up one-third of the total student population. By the year 2000, over 24% of our total population in California will be Hispanics, and the Hispanic student population will be 36%.

One of the nation's most serious problems is the high dropout rate among Hispanic students from the public school system. The consequences to youth who drop out and to the nation's economic and social well-being are overwhelming. Brown and Haycock (1984) suggest that one of the most critical educational problems is the attrition rate for Hispanic students. In the 20 to 24-year old population, 84% of Whites and 82% of Blacks graduated from high school. However, only 55% of Hispanics had completed high school. On a national level in 1985, , 50.2% of the 18-19 year old Hispanics had not completed high school as compared to 25.4% for Whites (U.S. Department of Education, 1987). Current statistics regarding the lack of educational attainment by minorities, especially for Hispanics, are readily available. For example, a study developed by the National Council of La Raza (1990) indicates that over 43% of Hispanics, aged 19 years old or over, are not enrolled in school and do not possess a high school diploma.

Not being able to educate the ever increasing masses of minorities coming into our school systems and into our social structure, is an obvious dilemma. National leaders must recognize the agony and seriousness of this real and present crisis and must begin to develop and implement meaningful educational programs without hesitation.

In recognition of the high dropout rate among Hispanic students and wishing to provide meaningful solutions to improve this very serious situation, the author has conducted a study to identify those positive variables which are present and appear to be of significance in the retention of Hispanics in California's high schools.

Prior to conducting the research, the author undertook an extensive review of the literature regarding those factors present in school systems that are successful in keeping students from dropping out. Research regarding causes for dropping out and statistics identifying the problems are readily available. However, factors within schools which have a positive influence on the retention of Hispanic students have not been identified.

Factors within effective schools which address student populations in general are identified by Flaxman (1987), Wehlage and Rutler (1986), Davis and Thomas (1986), and Garibaldi (1986). The general conclusion is that effective schools tend to have the following characteristics;

- individualized instruction
- lower student-teacher ratios
- strong discipline programs that are fair and effective

- high expectations for student achievement
- an emphasis on basic skills
- clear and well understood school goals
- strong instructional leadership
- staff turnover rates that are exceptionally low
- student involvement in co-curricular activitie
- parents generally quite content with expectations of the school
- the physical surroundings, including the appearance of the grounds and building, related to achievement (some authors stated that this is not a factor)

METHODOLOGY

Pupose

The focus of this study is to identify those factors present in school environments which appear to have an influence on high retention rates for Hispanic students. A second area of emphasis was to determine whether there is a positive correlation between that criteria identified in the study schools and the criteria identified in the literature on effective schools.

School Selection

Eighteen high schools in California were selected for the study. They were identified by the California State Department of Education's Demographic Unit. The following selection criteria were used: 1) a minimum of 500 total student enrollment with at least 50% Hispanic student population, 2) be one of the nine schools having the highest dropout rate for Hispanics using the State formula for identifying dropouts, and 3) be one of the nine high schools having the lowest dropout rate for Hispanics, using the same criteria. Geographically, the study schools ranged from the most southern desert, the Imperial Valley, to the San Joaquin Valley in Central California. The schools varied in size from an enrollment of 550 students to 3,827 students. Because of time and financial limitations, the author visited and conducted on-site interviews. only at the schools having the lowest dropout rates. Schools with the highest and lowest dropout rates were selected in order to determine what characteristics, as identified in the literature on effective schools, exist and to determine if there is a large degree of variance between the highest and lowest schools. On-site visitations were important in order to identify the existence of these characteristics.

Data Collection

The following data were collected and analyzed; 1) enrollments and

number of dropouts, 2) staffing patterns, 3) California Assessment Program scores, 4) demographic criteria such as location, size of school and ethnic composition, and 5) the degree of variance between the schools with the highest dropout rates and the lowest in each of the categories identified in Tables 1 and 2.

A comparison of high Hispanic enrollments high schools with the lowest dropout rates and the highest dropout rates

	Schools	Total Enrollment	Hispanic Enrollment	Percent Hispanic Dropout
	1	862	489	0.0
	2	705	455	0.4
	3	1,111	653	1.1
	4	2,037	1,302	1.4
Lowest	5	785	410	1.5
Dropout	6	1,732	1,130	1.9
Rates	7	1,193	1,772	1.9
	8	2,186	2,018	2.0
	9	550	340	2.4
	10	3,837	3,726	21.3
	11	2,495	2,101	23.2
	12	2,441	1,461	23.6
	13	1,181	671	24.7
Highest	14	3,038	1,599	25.7
Dropout	15	2,636	2,119	26.7
Rates	16	2,366	1,469	29.3
	17	2,368	1,294	33.8
	18	1,562	1,274	36.2

Table 1

Academic Achievement as Measured by CAP Scores (California Achievement Program)

Test Scores

Schools	Math	Reading	Writing
1	238(3)*	234(1)*	280(1)*
2	204(6)	203(7)	208(7)
3	254(2)	212(5)	239(2)
4	256(1)	223(2)	212(6)
5	204(6)	198(8)	225(4)
6	226(4)	216(4)	201(8)
7	197(8)	196(9)	185(9)
8	200(7)	208(6)	234(3)
9	188	190	184
10	168	165	177
11	195	163	185
12	205(5)	217(3)	213(5)
13	132	120	119
14	185	178	182
15	152	146	148
16	143	136	137
17	123	115	130
18	136	121	132

*( ) Scores in the top half

Table 2

Interviews of staff (including administrators and teachers) and parents were the main means for data collection. The primary contact and initial interview were conducted with the administrator in charge of the school, usually a principal or vice-principal. Other staff members were selected at random, depending on who was available and willing to be interviewed. Staff interviews focused on student behavior, school leadership, and intercultural relationships among students and between staff and students

(see Table 3). Information regarding the social and physical environment was also of primary interest, as was the level of parent participation.

Staff Responses

	High<—				—>Low
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)
1. How do you rate your school leadership?	27 (60%)	14 (31%)	3 (7%)	-0-	1 (2%)
2. How do you rate your discipline program?	30 (67%)	10 (22%)	5 (11%)	-0-	-0-
3. How do you rate student relationships between different cultures?	25 (56%)	10 (22%)	5 (11%)	3 (7%)	2 (4%)
4. How does the staff rate student/teacher relationships?	35 (78%)	6 (13%)	4 (9%)	-0-	-0-
5. How do you rate your contact with parents?	15 (33%)	15 (33%)	10 (22%)	3 (7%)	2 (4%)

Table 3

A second series of interviews focused on parent responses regarding attitudes toward their relationship with the school. Hispanic parents who had students attending the school were contacted. They were interviewed while they were dropping off students before school or picking them up after school. Primary questions centered on knowledge about the school program, identification of staff, and acceptance of the discipline program. The parents' level of participation was also requested. Their responses are identified in Table 4.

It was recognized that data would vary drastically because of the many possible variables in conducting such a study. However, every effort was made to control the quantitative and qualitative criteria. The California State Department of Education was the primary source of preliminary information, prior to conducting on-site visitations. California Basic Educational Data System (CBEDS), California Assessment Program (CAP) scores and statistics on dropout rates were used for compiling statistical data.

Since the author was not able to visit those schools with the highest dropout rates, data collection and analysis of data for these schools was limited to the statistical data provided by the State Department of Education.

Parent Responses

	High<				>Low
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)
1. How do you rate the leadership at your school?	31 (69%)	12 (27%)	2 (4%)	-0-	-0-
2. How do you rate the school's discipline program?	36 (80%)	7 (16%)	2 (4%)	-0-	-0-
		Yes	No	Not Sure	
3. Do you feel welcomed at school?		21 (47%)	15 (33%)	9 (20%)	

Table 4

Interviews and Observations

Staff interviews were conducted only at those schools that were identified as having the lowest dropout rates. The responses from administrators and teachers were very positive and information requested was immediately provided. Through an informal interview, responses to five questions were asked of at least five staff members at each site. Most staff members responding were teachers and/or administrators. The questions as shown in Table 3 were presented to 45 staff members, five at each of the nine sites visited.

Preliminary Findings

The literature dealing with effective school climates identifies several factors as being important (Davis and Thomas, 1989; Houlihan, 1988). Similar factors which parallel the findings in effective schools identified in this study were present in the nine high school campuses in the state with the lowest dropout rates among Hispanic students.

The following factors were the findings of this study:

1. Leadership of the principal was seen as extremely important and supported by the staff, students, and community. The research on effective schools also identified this as a key factor (Holmes and Wynne, 1989; Garibaldi, 1986).
2. Discipline that is clearly identified and fairly administered and accepted by all parties involved was present in the top high schools crucial in the research on effective schools (Holmes and Wynne, 1989; Garibaldi, 1986).
3. Environments that are clean and orderly, including the physical appearance of the building and grounds, is a condition that was present in the schools. However, the wealth of the district did not seem to be a factor. This finding was supported by Madaus (1980), who states that there is some evidence that the condition of the school facility is related to achievement.
4. The social environment was obviously a critical factor, as was demonstrated through positive interpersonal relations between adults and adults, students and students, and adults and students. A casual, task-oriented atmosphere seemed to prevail in most schools, with student dress standards leaning toward a more conservative style. Respect among the various ethnic groups was visible, and a multi-cultural theme seemed to be accepted. Garibaldi (1986) and Holmes and Wynne (1989) also found this to be a positive factor in

their identification of effective schools.

5. School/community relationships were non-structured and parents did not seem to have an understanding of the inner workings of the school system, however, they informally applauded the efforts of the schools. "Tolerance" of parents, especially those who spoke little or no English, seemed to be the appropriate term to describe school and parent relationships.
6. Attitudes from teachers and administrators seemed to be very positive toward the students' success in school and a "caring" attitude was often expressed.
7. Programs or activities to prevent dropouts, or to effectively deal with students who were at risk, were part of the general curriculum in most of the schools visited. Special programs such as continuation schools, home study, and independent study, were usually administered after students elected to leave school and in-school alternatives could not be found.
8. Size of school appeared to be an important factor. Those schools with smaller enrollments also had the lowest dropout rates (see Table 1).
9. Hispanic student enrollment overall did not appear to be a significant factor, since schools surveyed on both ends of the spectrum had either high or low Hispanic student enrollments, and also had equal number of low and high dropout rates (see Table 1).
10. Staff for those schools with the lowest dropout rates had the following characteristics: Six of the nine schools with low dropout rates had a higher percentage of Hispanic teachers. Seven of the nine schools with lower dropout rates had a higher percentage of male professionals on the staff. Age did not seem to make a difference.
11. Schools with the lowest dropout rates generally had higher CAP scores in Math, Reading, and Writing (see Table 2).

Summary and Recommendations

Those schools that had a greater holding power or lower dropout rates for Hispanic students had a pleasing physical appearance. They were well-managed and had an efficient, caring staff. The school environments are orderly and had few or minimal disruptions as determined by observations and responses by staff, students and parents.

Multicultural environments, including Hispanic staffing, appear to be important factors in the retention of

Hispanic students. Lower dropout rates for the schools also seem to have a positive effect on academics, those schools with the lowest dropout rates also had higher CAP scores in Reading, Math, and Writing.

The findings in this study are not conclusive, but the results seem to indicate that there is a parallel between the criteria identified for effective schools and the results and criteria for dropout prevention. Further research needs to be conducted, especially in those schools with high dropout rates using the criteria for effective schools as a research base. Additional research also needs to be conducted in programs that are addressing the issue of Hispanic dropouts. Common criteria for identifying dropouts in school systems needs to be adopted, including common standards identifying those students on independent study and home study, who, in too many cases, are technically dropouts.

More emphasis on early intervention should be placed on those students who are at risk, perhaps as early as the third grade, and additional efforts should be made to improve their self-concepts and basic skills. At the high school level, those students who are potential dropouts should be provided with intensive counseling and work-related experiences, including on the job training.

The Hispanic population is increasing rapidly throughout the country and in the state of California. Hispanics will soon be a majority, however, the masses of dropouts also continue to increase, thus providing a personal and social dilemma. Solutions for this very serious situation are complex and the consequences can be devastating to the individuals who drop out of school and to society as a whole if we do not take immediate action to rectify this problem. School drop-outs will become non-productive workers and citizens providing serious economic and social implications.

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Educación Multicultural: Definitivas Perspectivas y Viables Opciones

Atilano A. Valencia

Abstract

La incapacidad del sistema escolar de adelantar la educación de jóvenes de algunos grupos minoritarios y de animarlos para que persigan carreras provechosas es uno de los problemas contemporaneos más importantes. La educación multicultural representa un medio para darle atención a este problema. Este trabajo incluye varias perspectivas de la educación multicultural, y también presenta varias propuestas para mejorar y adelantar el conocimiento de pedagogos sobre este tema. En fin, este ensayo identifica tres areas pertinentes para promover investigaciones en la educación multicultural.

La educación multicultural representa un medio diseñado para despertar a norteamericanos quienes relativamente son indiferentes sobre los derechos que tambien les pertenece a gente americana de diversas culturas y razas. Llama atención al premiso que una persona no es menos norteamericano, por que el idioma que domina no es inglés o por que sus características culturales son diferentes que las del anglosajón. La educación multicultural representa un proceso educacional diseñado para darle a todos los estudiantes norteamericanos el conocimiento de sus derechos y de las oportunidades que están abiertas o deberán de estar abiertas para ellos.

Durante los dos siglos pasados de la historia americana, el sistema escolar se dedicó a la idea de facilitar la creación y la perpetuación de una cultura nacional norteamericana (Baptise, 1983). La acomodación de jóvenes de familias inmigrantes se cumplió en una manera relativamente sencilla, por la razón que la inmersión de los estudiantes en el ambiente escolar norteamericano se consideraba como uno de los mas rápidos modos para aculturizarlos. Al mismo tiempo, el proceso alculturativo se facilitó por el gran deseo de familias inmigrantes de aculturarse rápidamente. Concebiblemente, ellos también consideraron que este tipo de transforo

cultural representaba el más ventajoso medio para adelantar el estado socioeconómico de sus hijos. Este tipo de pensamiento fue consonante con la filosofía educacional que prevaleció en la sociedad norteamericana de esa época; y para el más grande porcentaje de americanos de origen europeo, esta perspectiva fue comprobada.

Desafortunadamente, este proceso que se encontraba general en escuelas norteamericanas falló en producir semejantes resultados con otras poblaciones étnicas; entre estas poblaciones fueron los afroamericanos, los mexicoamericanos, y los indígena americanos. Afuera de perseguir un largo discurso en la historia de estas tres poblaciones étnicas, se puede decir que los tres grupos tienen tres semejanzas: primero, las circumstancias históricas de estas poblaciones fueron diferente de inmigrantes europeos caucásicos; segundo, las características físicas de un gran número de personas de estas poblaciones son distintas a las de los inmigrantes caucásicos; y tercero, los idiomas y las creencias culturales de estos grupos se han percibido por norteamericanos, generalmente, como relativamente inferiores a las de los inmigrantes europeos (Banks, 1988; Baker & Stiles, 1977).

Hay a lo menos cuatro razones históricas por el mal éxito de los esfuerzos educacionales para aculturar algunos grupos minoritarios al ambiente norteamericano. Una razón es la actitud desfavorable que ocurre entre norteamericanos hacia algunos grupos minoritarios. Otra razon se refiere a la práctica de asignar en las escuelas a un gran número de estudiantes de grupos minoritarios en pistas vocacionales o en grupos homogeneos de bajo nivel. Todavía otra razon se refiere a las bajas expectativas académicas que mantienen algunos educadores y profesores norteamericanos para alumnos de ciertos grupos minoritarios. Y la cuarta razón se refiere a los errores en la administración de pruebas y en el mal uso de los resultados que, en consecuencia, rebajan las esperanzas académicas de un gran porcentaje de jóvenes de estos grupos minoritarios (Grant, 1988; Shinn & Tindal, 1988; Valencia, 1989).

Históricamente, el porcentaje de estudiantes que abandonan la escuela antes de la graduación es significativamente más grande entre afroamericanos, mexicoamericanos, e indígenas que entre americanos caucásicos (Valencia, 1989). Se puede decir que el sistema escolar representa un ventajoso medio en la aculturación de jóvenes americanos, pero también se puede afirmar que los jóvenes minoritarios que abandonan la escuela

tienen menos oportunidad de adoptar y mantener los valores y las costumbres culturales de la cultura predominante de este país. En este sentido, los Estados Unidos tiene más aparencia de una sociedad pluralística cultural que de una nación monocultural derivada de una "melting pot" o fundición de culturas.

No obstante, el concepto multicultural se puede percibir en aspectos favorables y desfavorables. En una perspectiva favorable se puede contender que, en referencia a los valores democráticos, una persona tiene el derecho de mantener valores y costumbres culturales que el o ella desea mantener mientras que no atropelle los derechos de otras personas (Cross, Baker, y Stiles, 1977). Otra perspectiva favorable se refiere a la influencia de diferentes culturas en el crecimiento de una nación superpoderosa. Pero en el lado desfavorable, la oposición declara que una multitud de diferentes idiomas y costumbres causan confusión entre norteamericanos e impiden la formación de acciones unidas para resolver problemas educacionales, económicos, y políticos. Sin embargo, la preferida orientación de un gran número de americanos en varios grupos minoritarios es de lograr la libertad de mantener, en parte, sus propios idiomas e costumbres, y también tener la oportunidad de aprender el idioma inglés y escoger y sostener algunas de las costumbres de la cultura predominante. En este sentido, un gran número de personas de grupos minoritarios en los Estados Unidos manifestan características culturales.

Pero la incapacidad del sistema escolar de adelantar la educación de jóvenes de algunos grupos minoritarios y de animara que persigan carreras provechosas es uno de los problemas contemporaneos más importantes (Chodzinsk y Samuda, 1983). Otro frecuente problema entre instituciones educacionales norteamericanas es la falta de avanzar personas minoritarias a puestos más responsables. La educación multicultural representa un medio para darle atención a estos problemas, pero esto depende, en mayor parte, en el cierto punto que instituciones se comprometen en metas y objetivos en este esfuerzo Sin embargo la realización de la educación multicultural también depende directamente en el interés y el empuje de diferente groups étnicos, y especialmente del personal escolar quienes tienen la responsibilidad de llevar a cabo los antedichos objetivos educacionales.

Este ensayo llama atención al retraso educacional de las escuelas públicas, colegios, y universidades en la identificación y aplicación de estrategias multiculturales en la

educación de jóvenes norteamericanos de diversos grupos étnicos, especialmente a jóvenes minoritarios de familias de bajo ingreso. Esta ponencia ofrece una interpretación definitiva y explicita de la educación multicultural para personas persiguiendo estudios unitarios y carreras profesionales como de profesores, directores de escuela, consejeros y psicólogos educacionales. Además, este trabajo incluye perspectivas de la educación multicultural describidas en ensayos eruditos y investigaciones recientes, y tambien presenta varias propuestas para mejorar y adelantar el conocimiento de pedagogos sobre este tema. En fin, este ensayo identifica tres areas pertinentes para promover investigaciones en la educación multicultural.

Definiciones y Perspectivas de la Educación Multicultural

La literatura en este tema indica que las interpretaciones del término, educación multicultural, invariablemente reflejan la orientación filosófica-ideológica del individuo. Otras definiciones presentan interpretaciones muy específicas con referencia a uno o más aspectos particulares de la educación multicultural. Y todavía otras definiciones significan interpretaciones más amplias e inclusivas de los aspectos generales de la educación multicultural.

Definiciones que llevan interpretaciones filosóficas/lógicas invariablemente representan una misión institucional, tal como de promover la identidad de personas de grupos minoritarios; de reducir el prejuicio y la descriminación hacia grupos minoritarios; de promover más igualdad en las oportunidades educacionales y carreras profesionales para estudiantes minoritarios; y de avanzar el conocimiento de todos los estudiantes acerca de las semejanzas y las diferencias que se encuentran entre las características étnicas y raciales de diversos grupos minoritarios en los Estados Unidos.

Definiciones y perspectivas más amplias e inclusivas de aspectos generales de la educación multicultural incluyen estrategias para promover el concepto de una sociedad pluralística cultural. Invariablemente, estudios con este punto de vista dan referencia a las experiencias, contribuciones, y problemas sociales de distintos grupos étnicos, femininos, y socioeconómicos (Sleeter y Grant, 1988). Pero mientras que un gran número de educadores favorecen la inclusión de estas referencias, hay otro número de pedagogos que oponen la idea de promover el concepto de una sociedad pluralíitica cultural. (Banks, 1988; Sleeter y Grant, 1988).

Banks (1988) sugerió el término multiétnico en lugar del término multicultural. En su perspectiva, el término multiétnico le da más llamamiento a educadores para que consideren la urgencia de tratar las necesidades educacionales de grupos étnicos, por la razón que este término reconoce definitivamente la existencia de la diversidad étnica en los Estados Unidos. Un gran número de pedagogos minoritarios representan esta perspectiva, pero la mayoría de ellos todavía usan el término educación multicultural para presentar este mismo punto de vista.

En el nivel universitario, la definición de la educación multicultural lleva en acuerdo grupos de estudiantes que están persiguiendo estudios para diferentes carreras educacionales, que necesitan aumentar sus conocimientos de las características culturales de diversos grupos étnicos y raciales, y tambien de las necesidades educacionales, psicológicas y sociales de la juventud minoritaria. Entre tales grupos se ecuentran estudiantes universitarios persiguiendo estudios para una licenciatura pedagógica de profesores practicantes asistiendo institutos de entrenamiento educacional, estudiantes graduados persiguiendo estudios para una licenciatura administrativa escolar, estudiantes persiguiendo estudios para una licenciatura psicológica escolar, y estudiantes persiguiendo estudios para una licencia de servicios sociales.

Despues de analizar las diferentes definiciones y perspectivas de la educación multicultural, es aparente que la interacción de este medio educativo depende en la orientación filosófica-ideológica del autor o del pedagogo en su respetiva situación. Sin embargo, el punto de vista de este autor acerca de este medio educativo está presentado explicitamente en los párrafos iniciales en la siguiente parte de este ensayo.

Estrategias Multiculturales

Es importante de notar que la educación multicultural no se considera como un programa de estudios de culturas mundiales. En la perspectiva de este autor, la educación multicultural en los Estados Unidos representa un medio educacional para darle énfasis particular a ideas, tiradas y problemas concernientes a grupos minoritarios, especialmente esos con más necesidades socioeconómicos. Estos aspectos se pueden incluir en el contenido y actividades de la materia; y también en cursos o tópicos especialmente diseñados con referencia a las características culturales, eventos históricos y contribuciones de diferentes grupos étnicos. Además, los profesores pueden desarrollar o escoger una

variedad de materiales y actividades educacionales con específica referencia a temas multiculturales.

Un visitante a una aula en cualquier escuela puede determinar, en muy corto tiempo, si el ambiente es monocultural o multicultural. Para hacer este discernimiento, el observador tiene que considerar que la presencia de estudiantes de grupos étnicos minoritarios no es el único factor pertinente (Davidman y Davidman, 1988). De más importancia es el modo en que se presenta la materia, el intercambio de ideas y relaciones que se desarrollan entre estudiantes de diversas culturas, y las referencias multiculturales que se presentan en las actividades del aprendizaje.

No obstante, una clase compuesta de estudiantes de diversos grupos étnicos es muy deseable; pero este tipo de acomodación de estudiantes no asegura, así mismo, la ocurrencia de un ambiente multicultural. Y mientras que es demasiado difícil de asegurar una representación igual en el número de estudiantes de diferentes grupos étnicos, la creación de un ambiente multicultural es ciertamente factible. Indudablemente, la orientación multicultural de los profesores y sus capacidades de involucrar a todos los estudiantes igualmente en las actividades del aprendizaje representan los más significantes factores de un ambiente multicultural.

Lo siguiente ofrece una serie de ideas y estrategias que el pedagogo debería de considerar para promover la educación de estudiantes de diversos grupos étnicos, especialmente de grupos minoritarios de bajo ingreso:

conocimiento de las características etnolingüísticas de los estudiantes en la aula; la aplicación de estrategias para asegurar la equidad educacional para estudiantes minoritarios y los derechos básicos de todos los estudiantes;

la aplicación de medios para resolver problemas que suceden por los errores en la administración de pruebas y en la asignación académica de estudiantes minoritarios;

técnicas educativas para remediar los efectos psicológicos desfavorablas que ocurren entre estudiantes minoritarios por las mínimas expectativas académicas que ellos reciben por los errores educacionales en el ambiente escolar, conocimiento de los problemas personales que afectan la educación de estudiantes minoritarios, y la aplicación de medios para resolverlos, la aplicación de estrategias para comunicar efectivamente con estudiantes y padres con deficiencias en inglés; y

conocimiento de los malos efectos del prejuicio y la discriminación étnica y racial, y la aplicación de estrategias para promover actitudes y relaciones favorables entre todos los estudiantes en la aula.

Mientras que algunos de estos aspectos de la educación multicultural estan estipulados en las pautas exigidas por agencias de acreditación de colegios y universidades, tal como el Concilio Nacional para la Acreditación de la Educación Pedagogica y el Concilio Estatal de California para Licenciar Profesores de las Escuelas Públicas (Bank, 1988; Davidman y Davidman, 1988; Sleeter y Grants, 1988), todavía se encuentran otros asuntos y problemas que se necesitan de incluir con mas énfasis en programas de entrenamiento para profesores.

Es esencial que programas de pedagogia incluyan más información de las características y las referencias históricas de varios grupos minoritarios en los Estados Unidos, e.g., los diferentes grupos de afroamericanos, asiáticos, hispanos, e indígeno-americanos (Native American). Estos grupos minoritarios frecuentemente se clasifican bajo una categoría general sin consideración de las diferencias que se encuentran entre los propios grupos. Por la falta de este tipo de información, falsas generalizaciones y estereotipos frecuentemente aparecen entre estudiantes y professores malinformados.

Factores Para Más Énfasis en la Education: Multicultural

Equidad en la educación representa uno de los factores que debería de recibir más énfasis en la educación multicultural. En este punto de vista, equidad educacional no solo significa la distribución igual de recursos entre todas las escuelas de un distrito escolar, tambien se refiere a la provisión de un equipo de profesores de altas calificaciones, con amplio y reciente conocimiento de las necesidades educacionales de grupos minoritarios, y con un repertorio de estrategias pedagógicas propias para adelantar la educación de estos grupos (Monterourth, 1988; Valencia, 1989).

Equidad en la educación implica que los profesores, consejeros, psicólogos, y administradores en todos los niveles educacionales estén dispuestos a animar a los estudiantes minoritarios para que continuen su educación. Equidad en la educación representa esfuerzos para hacer cambios en la administración de pruebas y exámenes, tal como permitir más tiempo para estudiantes que encuentran dificultades en estas situaciones por alguna deficiencia en inglés u otros impedimentos; y también

favorece otros medios, aparte de pruebas, para admitir estudiantes minoritarios en estudios colegiales y universitarios. Al mismo tiempo, este punto de vista propone que la calidad de la educación le pertenece a todos los estudiantes, y también afirma que esto se puede cumplir con propios requisitos para algunos estudiantes, más amplio tiempo para otros, y actividades cooperativas para algunos otros.

En un artículo reciente, Mamary (1989) anotó que varios investigadores y pedagogos proponen que el plan de estudios para estudiantes de grupos minoritarios no se debería de diseñar en el mismo sentido que el plan de estudios para estudiantes lentos. Además, estos estudiantes no se deberían de poner en grupos remediales o clases para estudiantes retardados. En vez, los profesores deberían de escoger o desarrollar diferentes métodos educacionales que son más compatibles para estudiantes de diversas culturas y estados socioeconómicos, e. g., ajustes para darle a estudiantes la oportunidad de llevar a cabo tareas en parejas o en grupos cooperativos (Kagan, 1986). Los profesores deberían de desarrollar la habilidad de los estudiantes en la aplicación de destrezas cognoscitivas mas adelantadas, incluyendo análisis crítico y pensamiento creativo.

Otro reto que encuentran los profesores en una aula compuesta de estudiantes de diversas culturas y estados socioeconómicos es la creación de un ambiente humanístico que reconoce las sensibilidades de todos los estudiantes. La educación multicultural les ayuda a profesores a evitar expresiones que tienden hacer menos las habilidades intelectuales de estudiantes minoritarios (Green, et. al., 1988). Y también les ayuda a evitar frases y términos que se puedan interpretar como expresiones discriminatorias.

La educación multicultural les ayuda a profesores, consejeros, y administradores a tener la conocencia que las disposiciones actitudinales del individuo frecuentemente aparecen en el tono, la hesitación, y la rapidez del habla. Les ayuda a saber que expresiones faciales y posiciones corporales, e.g., la distancia entre dos personas, se pueden interpretar como características de una persona distante y fría (Wolfgang, 1983).

La educación multicultural ayuda a profesores a desarrollar técnicas instruccionales que incluyen diferentes tipos de retroalimentación constructiva (constructive feedback) para estudiantes minoritarios de bajo alcance; y también les presenta diferentes ideas para colocar los asientos en el aula para evitar agrupaciones homogenias de estudiantes por categorías étnicas y raciales (Goodlad y Oaks, 1988).

En este mismo sentido, los profesores, administradores, y consejeros deberían considerar que las conferencias con padres minoritarios presentan oportunidades para identificar modos para resolver problemas personales y académicos que también afectan el aprendizaje entre estudiantes. Desafortunadamente, comunicaciones con los padres ocurren con más frecuencia en referencia al mal comportamiente de sus hijos (Valencia, 1988). Ademas, comunicaciones y conferencias con padres de diversos idiomas no se deberíían de evitar, porque asuntos con ellos se pueden cumplir con la ayuda de personas bilingües en la falcultad o otras personas bilingües de la comunidad.

Una de las más importantes consideraciones de la educación multicultural es de determinar estrategias educacionales para eradicar el prejuicio y la discriminación en la sociedad en general. En un respaso de la literatura en este tema, Ijaz e Ijaz (1983) descubrieron que estudios educacionales con más énfasis en las semejanzas entre culturas y menos atención en las diferencias étnicas han tenido más influjo en desarrollar actitudes favorables entre estudiantes elementales. Otros autores afirman el merito de esta estrategia, pero también proponen la necesidad de incluir actividades educacionales que desarrollan perspectivas favorables entre todos los estudiantes hacia grupos étnicos que representan distintos valores y costumbres culturales (Ogbu, 1987; Valencia, 1990).

Recientes Resultados de Investigaciones en la Educación Multicultural

El nivel de conocimento en la educación multicultural de profesores practicantes en el primer año de experiencia depende relativamente en el énfasis que lleva este tipo de educación en el programa de entrenamiento. Programas de entrenamiento generalmente incluyen varios objetivos en uno o más cursos deseñados para calificar candidatos para la licenciatura pedagógica. Invariablemente, los objetivos corresponden a los estandartes de acreditación estipulados por una agencia estatal y/o una agencia nacional de acreditación.

El grado de conocimiento que obtienen los candidatos de los asuntos en la educación multicultural, y el cierto punto que han desarrollado destrezas para acomodar y adelantar la educación de estudiantes minoritarios fue investigado por Valencia (1988 y 1989) en dos búsquedas recientes. Los resultados de la primera búsqueda entre 115 candidatos en el último semestre de entrena 89 profesores practicantes indicaron que los dos grupos de

participantes estimaron que ellos habían aumentado un grado moderado de conocimiento en asuntos educacionales y perspectivas socioculturales que afectan las escuelas, la enseñanza, y el aprendizaje (Valencia, 1988). Además, los participantes notaron que ellos habían adelantado moderadamente sus conocimientos de técnicas para motivar estudiantes en general. Pero también indicaron que todavía necesitan de aumentar sus competencias en desarrollar estrategias y ajustes educacionales para mejor acomodar y adelantar la educación de estudiantes de diversos grupos etnolinguísticos. Específicamente, los datos estadísticos revelaron que los estudiantes en la práctica pedagógica y los profesores practicantes en el primer año de experiencia tienen demasiada dificultad en la ensenanza de estudiantes de diversos grupos etnolingüísticos (Valencia, 1988). Sin embargo, este fenómeno se puede considerar como un asunto serio para universidades involucradas en la preparación de candidatos para licenciaturas pedagógicas.

La segunda investigación por Valencia (1989) produjo resultados que indican el tipo y el grado de orientación hacia catorce variables multiculturales entre 135 candidatos en el último semestre de entrenamiento para la licenciatura pedagógica y 142 estudiantes aplicantes que desean empezar estudios pedagos en el siguiente semestre. Los datos estadísticos revelaron que las respuestas de los dos grupos de estudiantes fueron consistentemente favorables en nueve de los catorce factores multiculturales presentados en un cuestionario de la búsqueda. Específicamente, los participantes en esta búsqueda notaron respuestas favorables en los siguientes factores:

> en sesiones instruccionales por el medio de preguntas y respuestas, los profesores no deberían de escoger preguntas concretas y sencillas para estudiantes minoritarios que tambien son designadas para estudiantes lentos, mientras que las mas arduas (abstractas) preguntas son escogidas para estudiantes mayorios;
>
> dos, en el mismo sentido, las espectativas académicas para estudiantes minoritarios no se deberían de ser más bajas que las de estudiantes mayoritarios
>
> tres, el programa instruccional no debería de simplemente enfocar en el desarrollo de destrezas básicas para estudiantes minoritarios, pero tambien debería de darles oportunidad para desarrollar sus

habilidades en la aplicación de procesos cognoscitivos;

cuatro, ajustes para el aprendizaje cooperativo se consideran muy propios y se deberían de proveer para ambos estudiantes minoritarios y alumnos mayoritarios;

cinco, estrategias para la lectura del contenido, que llevan énfasis en la derivación de los significados del contexto, más que simplemente en el decodigo y en la correcta pronunciación de palabras, deberían de aplicarse para ambos alumnos minoritarios y estudiantes mayoritarios;

seis, los resultados de pruebas de alcanzamiento académico y de la inteligencia entre estudiantes minoritarios no se deberían de considerar como los únicos y principales medios en determinar la habilidad intelectual y las expectativas académicas de estos estudiantes;

siete, el currículo escolar no se debería de diseñar con énfasis solamente en la cultura predominante;

ocho, profesores deberían de crear un ambiente educacional que desaproba la aparición de estereotipos desfavorables, mientras que reconoce las semejanzas y diferencias en valores culturales entre estudiantes; y

nueve, profesores deberían de reconocer y representar la premisa que los Estados Unidos es fundamentalmente una nación multicultural, con el inglés sirviendo como el lenguage nacional (Valencia, 1988, p. 5).

Por el otro lada, los resultados en la investigación por Valencia (1989) presentaron cinco factores multiculturales, notados por los dos grupos de estudiantes, que necesitan énfasis en el entrenamiente de profesores. En este sentido, los resultados representan una urgente necesidad para que programas de entrenamiento pongan más esfuerzo en los siguientes asuntos multiculturales:

uno, en la examinación de los efectos de diferentes estrategias que se utilizan para evaluar el alcanzamiento de estudiantes de poblaciones minoritarias, especialmente en referencia a poblaciones con gran porcentajes de estudiantes con calificaciones bajas y que abandonan la escuela;

dos, en la identificación de los efectos ventajosos del bilingüismo y de estrategias pedagógicas que ayudan a estudiantes usar más de un idioma en selectos estudios y actividades académicas;

tres, en la conceptualización de pruebas en una forma que les ayude a todos los estudiantes entender claramente las preguntas y las instrucciones de la prueba, más que la presentación de pruebas demasiadamente sencillas que, en efecto, infieran más bajas expectativas académicas para estudiantes minoritarios;

cuatro, en la utilización de ajustes alternativos en la administración de pruebas (e.g., el modo de presentarlas y la duración del tiempo) para estudiantes con deficiencias en inglés, la lectura, y otros impedimentos; y

cinco, en la aplicación de estrategias viabés en la consejería para promover el interes de estudiantes minoritarios y para animarlos para que continuen estudios académicos más adelantados y carreras mas ventajosas (Valencia, 1989, pp. 6-8).

En fin, tres recomendaciones se han identificado en estos estudios para adelantar la búsqueda sobre varios factores en la educación multicultural: uno, semejantes investigaciónes se deberían de considerar por otras universidades con programas de entrenamiento para profesores y educadores para determinar el grado que sus candidatos han obtenido conocimiento y destrezas en la educación multicultural; dos, todavía faltan más estudios para ascertar el grado que candidatos (en prácticas pedagógicas) y profesores practicantes aplican estrategias multiculturales en el aula; y tres, también hay una gran necesidad de promover investigaciones para notar el punto en que administradores, consejeros y psicólogos escolares consideran y aplican estrategias multiculturales en sus trabajos.

Sumario y Conclusions

Este ensayo presenta ideas y estrategias que se consideran más efectivas en promoviendo la educación de estudiantes de diversos grupos étnicos, particularmente estudiantes de grupos minoritorios de bajo ingreso. Especificamente, esta ensayo da referencia a la applicación de estrategias que aseguran la equidad educacional de estudiantes de diversos grupos étnicos y la aplícación para reformar la practica en la administración de pruebas y asignaciónes de estudiantes minoritarios, la aplicación de

estrategias para acrecentar las expectativas educaciónales de estudiantes minoritarios en el ambiente escolar, la aplicación de modos para remediar los problemas personales que afectan la educación de estudiantes minoritarios, la aplicación: de medios viables para comunicar efectivamente con estudiantes y padres con deficiencias en inglés, y la aplicación de estrategias para formar actitudes y relaciones favorables entre estudiantes de diversos grupos étnicos.

Este trabajo también presenta los resultados de dos investigaciones sobre la educación multicultural que incluyen dos tipos de participantes: profesores practicantes y estudiantes aplicantes con planes de empesar estudios pedagógicos. Los resultados del primer estudio indican que los participantes todavía necesitan de aumentar sus competencias para desarrollar estrategias y adjustes educacionales para mejor acomodar y adelantar la educación de diversos grupos etnolingüísticos.

Los resultados de la segunda investigación revelan que las respuestos de dos grupos de estudiantes (estudiantes aplicantes con intenciones de empezar estudios pedagógicos y profesores practicantes en el último semestre de estudios profesionales) fueron consistemente favorable en nueve de catorce factores multiculturales.

Por el otro lado, los resultados del segundo estudio presentan una urgente necesidad para analizar seriamente los errores en el uso y en la interpretación de los resultados de pruebas sobre el alcanzamiento de estudiantes minoritorios; para identificar los efectos ventajosos del bilingüismo y de las estrategias pedagógicas que ayudan a estudiantes usar más de un idioma en selectos estudios; para reconstruir las instrucciones y el contenido de pruebas en una forma explicita para estudiantes con menos proficiencia en inglés, mientras que el nivel académico de las preguntas queda igual para estos estudiantes; para utilizar ajustes alternativos en la administración de pruebas para estudiantes con limitaciones en inglés; y para aplicar estrategias viables en la consejería para animar estudiantes minoritarios hacia estudios académicos más adelantados y carreras más ventajosas.

En fin, los resultados de estos estudios indican que todavía faltan más búsquedas para ascertar el grado que candidatos (en prácticas pedagógicas) y profesores practicantes actualmente aplican estrategias multiculturales en la aula, y también notan que hay una gran necesidad de promover investigaciones para determinar el punto en que administradores, consejeros, y psicólogos escolares consideran y aplican estrategias multiculturales en sus propios trabajos.

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THE ROLE OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN RECRUITING HISPANICS: CROSS-CULTURAL STRATEGIES

Gene Gallegos

The role of teacher education faculty in the recruitment and retention of Hispanics into the teaching field is the focus of this article. Two major implications for teacher educators are proposed. One is that educators in higher education should form partnerships with public schools in the development of recruitment, training and retention programs; the other is that teacher education faculty need cross-cultural training to understand and relate to Hispanic teacher candidates.

This paper will propose cross-cultural strategies that can be used to train teacher educators to be more effective in recruiting, training and retaining Hispanics in teacher education.

The next decade will see dramatic and significant changes in the teacher and student populations. Demographers predict that by the year 2000, most of the children under 18 will be non-White minorities. Many teachers will also retire during this next decade and will need to be replaced. Public schools will need ethnic specific teachers to serve as role models for the growing number of minority students. Thus, Hispanics must be prepared to replace many of the non-minority teachers that leave the teaching profession.

Before the late 1960s, only a few colleges and universities made efforts to serve minorities. However, during the 1970s and 1980s many teacher education departments adopted policies and programs with the expressed purpose of recruiting Hispanics and other minorities into teacher education.

One reason for this dilemma is that many teacher educators simply do not understand the complexity of the problem. Another cause is that too few faculty and staff give any attention to the recruitment, training and retention of minority students in teacher education. Sustained drives to recruit and retain Hispanics in teacher education programs have not occurred.

Despite these actions the numbers of Hispanics entering teacher education was little different than what it was when the recruitment programs began. In actuality the number of Hispanics was regressing rather than improving. To this time, teacher educators have been unsuccessful in recruiting, training and retaining Hispanic students.

It is the thesis of this paper that there are identifiable causes for these

failed efforts, and that success is possible if certain strategies are implemented.

The problem of too few Hispanics in teacher education should not be too narrowly defined. If it is, the problems inherent in current recruitment and retention programs will escape detection. A broader perspective that includes the social, psychological cultural considerations is essential.

To address the social and psychological dimensions, teacher educators must be involved in training programs that emphasize personal cross-cultural development and address the negative personal attitudes and perceptions of minorities held in varying degrees by some members of teacher training institutions. Unless these innovations occur, the numbers of Hispanics in teacher education will likely continue to be small, and the prospects for improving these statistics will problematic.

Teacher education departments must move beyond merely enduring cultural diversity and create a sense of purpose among the faculty. The merits of cross-cultural learning and skill development have been successfully implemented in business and industry. Skills in these areas are especially important because of the changing demographics in education.

Cultural diversity is a reality in America; it must become a reality in teacher education. University personnel can become catalysts for the creation of change in how Hispanics are recruited and retained. This change could occur if attitudes and behaviors of teacher educators toward Hispanic recruitment and retention are improved.

Too often the predisposition of teacher educators has been to look upon minorities negatively. Those responsible for the recruitment and retention of Hispanics into teacher education must be able to confront and surmount personal prejudices if they are to become effective recruiters. This will occur when they are trained to function in an open and flexible manner toward Hispanics.

Teacher educators must acknowledge the dangers of blatant and veiled racist attitudes and behavior. Learning at least the basic rudimentary language structures and cultural characteristics of Hispanic students would be a positive step. For significant growth to occur in teacher education, the staff and faculty should attempt to integrate the experiences of Hispanic cultures. Thus, educators can translate their cultural sensitivity into relationships that are positive and productive in their interactions with minority students. Ignorance of, or a refusal to recognize, cross-cultural diversity will perpetuate fragmentation of communications between teacher educators and Hispanic students.

A related issue that merits attention relates to how effectively teacher educators apply culture theory to actual cross-cultural relations with Hispanics. Teacher educators often experience cultural shock when they face culturally diverse students. It is unrealistic to expect sensitivity and effectiveness from these educators without proper training. They need to be taught to recognize and understand the complex cultural backgrounds of students.

Historically, most attempts to work with Hispanic students have been piecemeal and ineffective because they have not been comprehensive in scope or long-term in duration. Definitive goals and objectives and action plans have simply not been formulated to achieve success.

Teacher educators need to cope in a pro-active manner with the demographic changes that are occurring. Strategic planning and management are important skills to manage these changes. New and dramatic definitions of leadership and organizational structures must be devised that address the new social, psychological and cultural realities. Teacher educators must change to meet these new demands.

To generate successful programs, teacher educators must create a social organization that reinforces sensitivity and responsibility in planning for change. This requires a redefinition of the values that influence leadership styles and emphasize collaboration, teamwork, and mutual concern for the welfare of Hispanic students. Anything less is doomed to failure.

Efforts to recruit and retain Hispanics in teacher education will continue to be suspect unless significant structural changes occur in teaching departments. However, it is possible to achieve this success through a rigorous, planned, long-range training program for teacher educators responsible for recruiting, training and retaining Hispanics.

These programs would share a common approach. They would be multi-dimensional in scope and use strategies to strengthen teacher educators' cross-cultural skills and improve their ability to function in a campus environment that includes students from diverse backgrounds.

The actual training program would aim to reduce and eliminate the cultural shock which occurs when teacher educators come into contact with various values, beliefs, and assumptions of other cultures. The issue is to develop a training program which allows these educators to cope with cultural differences effectively.

The program should contain common elements that improve human performance through education, training and communication about cultural differences and similarities.

Specific elements of the program would include the following:

1. The training should be done by recognized trainers in cross-cultural relations.
2. The case study approach should be used rather than a lecture method.
3. Foreign language training in the form of high intensity language training should be used to improve the communications skills.
4. The training should use multimedia, customized case studies, and group dynamics to raise the consciousness level of participant, and improve their cross-cultural effectiveness.
5. The training should include a cultural component dealing with diverse cultures indigenous to the service area of the teacher training department. This component would center around three basic themes - cognitive understanding of diverse cultures; assessment of one's sensitivity to diverse cultures; and the affects of diverse cultures on the teaching-learning process as perceived by those teacher educators and their trainers.

A result of the comprehensive and on-going training program would be that teacher educators would develop individual action plans for self-improvement in the area of cultural awareness and understanding.

Another result of this training model would be that educators would become more tolerant and accepting of cultural "peculiarities." The new insights gained with the formal study of cultures would bring new insights for improving human relations with minority students. The cross-cultural understanding would then minimize the impact of culture shock and maximize intercultural experiences between teacher educators and the students. The educators would become living models for how to experience effective cross-cultural relations.

Efforts to ameliorate the shortage of Hispanics in teacher education require the adoption of comprehensive and far reaching plans that address the recruitment, assessment, preparation, and certification of students who desire to become teachers. This can be done at various levels. Legislators can help by creating legislation that supports these objectives. Public schools need to have input into formulating these comprehensive plans. Public school students at the elementary, junior and senior school level will need to be identified and recruited to consider teaching as a viable profession to enter.

Success is possible, but only when the teaching community seriously addresses this issue at the most complex and challenging social, psychological and cultural levels. Otherwise, the existing condition will not change and we will continue to have a lack of Hispanic educators in the public schools of America.

A SINGER'S SONG

(For Francisco Ruelas Guerrero and Las Hermanas Guerrero)

They were dreamers
and I was lover
or they were lovers
and I a greater dreamer.
My two aunts, Mother's sisters, tried hard to make me a singer:
"Here we go, voice from the stomach through your head
and don't sing with your throat!"

I was six or seven
and they were training
to go on the road. In their spare time, they would work on me. I never could please them. Always spitting and out of air, I struggled through:
"Amor con amor se paga
y algun día te pagaré
amor con amor se paga
algún día te pagaré.

"Can't you feel the sounds?" they would ask. "And the words, are you deaf? You're off key again!
Ahora, otra vez, pero canta con todo el alma!"
"Amor con amor se paga..." The lyrics were all about love and betrayal
how betrayal is paid with betrayal.

Often in tears
I would run from the room
to Grandpa Francisco's garden out back, there at night
all was contained in blue
his garden of blue light.
where I met the lovers
from the songs,
ill-fated lovers,
their words pressed themselves on my body
entered my veins on fire

"en el cielo
en la tierra
en el mar
en la tumba
estaremos los dos."
warm words, burning words
stretching beyond eternity, and I listened
crouched behind the cactus and mesquite.

I never learned to sing
the way they wanted. My
child's voice
never spiralled beyond
Grandpa's garden.
It flew low and hid
among the peppers and tomatoes he had planted.
"Cuando lejos de mí
quiera penar el corazón
cuando lejos de mí
quiera penar el corazón."
My words flew low,
their wings singed
by hot Texas winds
but the heart took wing
to another, much bluer garden.
"Ay no, por Dios, te pido por Dios no sufras más
porque yo pronto vendré
para los dos."

I was never alone
in his garden
where I met the lovers
anointed them
gave them absolution
as they played out
their ill-fated finales

and their words
hooked the blue wings
of my childhood dream.

It was words
dusty and full of thorns
bleeding words
whose dust had settled
heavy on the blue wings
of my fantasy
and I would carry their pain with me always:

"Solamente una vez
amé en la vida
solamente una vez
y nada más.
Una vez nada más
en mi huerto
brilla la esperanza..."

In the songs
the lovers came only once
to love in a way that
was so tragic.
But in Grandpa's garden
they came often
some lived there
with all the clarity
and consistency
of my childhood light.
"Estamos en las mismas condiciones
con otra condición vuelvo contigo
hay que olvidar
lo que nos ofendimos
y hacer de cuenta
que hoy nos conocimos."
The conditions, the terms

were always the same:
lovers destined to love and die.
(Mourir d'aimer):
"to die of love
or to live life forever with you
yes to live life forever with you
that's the wish that I make
and the chance that I take."

I was there
among cactus and mesquites
I was there
in Grandpa's garden
I was there
"Cuando se quiere de veras
como te quiero yo a tí
es imposible, mi vida,
estar muy lejos de tí.."

How to measure the distance
between lovers and gardens
between my aunts and me...
between Grandpa and me...

(Oh, Grandpa, I can see
your sweet brown face
high Tarascan cheekbones
and you wiping your eyes
as you heard your favorite song:
"Luna que se pierde
sobre las tinieblas
de mi soledad,
a donde vas?
Dime si esta noche
tú te vas de ronda
como ella se fue,
con quién estás?")

Moon has gone into hiding
clouds and sky
all are in mourning
for you, Grandpa, for you
they cry for how good you were
"Ay, amor, ya no me quieras tanto
ay, amor, olvídate de mí." Yes, the lyrics were all about love I too had
been betrayed
moon and stars
clouds and sky
had taken Grandpa away.

Years have passed and
I cannot forget, cannot
repay my aunts:
they gave me words
in a garden of blue light
language in Grandpa's garden sharp as cactus thorns
yellow as Texas earth
red as the crawling ants
and lavender like lament
when Grandpa went away.

Algún día yo no les pagaré only with love and words
in the panorama
of sky earth sea
"en el cielo en la tierra en el mar
en la tumba estaremos los dos."
***

Olivia Castellano

Journal of the Association of Mexican American Educators

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Turlock, California 95380

Association of Mexican American Educators, Inc.
State of California, P.O. Box 19954, Sacramento, CA 95819-0954 - (916) 929-3708